

France 5 A 6
LETTERS
CONCERNING THE *795 h 3*
PRESENT STATE
OF THE
FRENCH NATION.

CONTAINING

John Young
A comprehensive View of the

Political State,
Agriculture,
Trade and Commerce,
Revenues,
Military Power,
Government,

Ranks of the People,
Manners,
Laws,
Fine Arts and Artists,
Theatre,
Literature and Writers:

With a complete Comparison
Between FRANCE and GREAT BRITAIN.

In respect of

Extent, Fertility, Situation, Populousness, Capitals, Govern-
ment, Laws, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, General
Wealth, Publick Credit, Revenues, Army, Navy, Colonies,
General Prosperity and Power, Architecture, Painting,
Sculpture, Engraving, Music, Literature, Academies,
Societies, &c. &c. &c.

L O N D O N :

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MDCCLXIX.



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tion of their merits. I know the
to general as what I now venture
publish.

Man.

A

INTRODUCTION.

THE author of these letters apprehends, that his subject is by no means exhausted by preceding writers: On the contrary, there rather appears a scarcity of writings, designed to give an idea of the French nation. Particular parts of his plan, have been treated by others, but he knows of none that have, in one work, embraced the whole.

The lively sketches of Voltaire and Rousseau, are pleasing, elegant, and judicious; but they are very confined: Those of the former, are scattered in detached pieces throughout his numerous works, and the latter treats, or rather satirizes, only the opera, music, and the manners of Paris.

The Italian, the work of Carrielli, is very judicious, and well composed; but politicks and literature are strangely jumbled together, and he treats of scarcely any thing else.

In German, some sensible pieces have been published within a few years; I have read the translations of them, but find not the least reason to lay aside my own design, from the consideration of their merit: I know not of one that is half so general as what I now venture to offer to the publick.

Many pieces, on different parts of this subject, have been published in Holland,——some have merit; but a great number of books must be turned over, to gain a complete idea of France and her inhabitants.

In English, very few works that treat of this subject, have been published: Some late political treatises are valuable, as far as they extend, and the hints of some modern travellers judicious; but I know not of any thing that extends much beyond one article of enquiry. And every thing settled which the language contains, would be very far from being a complete description.

The scarcity therefore of works on this subject at large, it is hoped, will plead for the imperfections of what is now offered to the world.

I have inserted a universal comparison between the two kingdoms of France and Great-Britain; a part of my subject, which I know not of any one, in any language, having attempted before.

I have not omitted the use of printed works of good authority: Some very valuable manuscript papers I have examined; and left no other means untried, of adding what I was able, to the merit of the performance.

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THE
PRESENT STATE
OF THE
FRENCH NATION.

LETTER I.

THERE is scarcely in history a more remarkable and sudden contrast than the state and power of France in the last—and in the present age. Kingdoms have their rise, their epocha, and their decline; but it is not a little strange that they should come so swiftly on each other. The neighbouring kingdom of Spain rose to great and dreaded power—she kept possession of that power for some time, and she gradually declined: But the revolutions of the French power have been as rapid as the genius of the people; and form no slight answer to those who assert that the great affairs of nations are of a more certain determinate nature than generally supposed; and that however remarkable men may make them deviate from their common track, they soon recover their stated course, like the returning elasticity of a spring bent beyond its natural pitch. It is great geniuses that form great affairs—not great affairs that create great geniuses. The rise and decline of France are owing, in a very remark-

B able

able degree, to the difference of abilities in *two* kings—and not only to this cause, but to the *variation* of conduct in *one*. Great in the morning and noon of his reign, but weak and sunk in the evening of it.

It has been very justly remarked that France was at the zenith of her power, at the conclusion of the peace of Nimeguen. Until that time the domestic and foreign policy of the French court appear to have been well conducted; so far as they were relative to the great object—a general influence. And there is no absurdity in supposing that Lewis XIV. at that period, had really an idea of universal monarchy—surrounded by flatterers and parasites—in the midst of the most sumptuous court in christendom—his kingdom flourishing—his armies formidable and crowned with conquest—his neighbours, separately considered, nearly the reverse of this; never could a general concurrence of affairs have promised more lavishly, a prodigious and lasting power. Every thing till then had prospered; the genius of Colbert had multiplied the riches and inhabitants of the kingdom, and although he did not act in relation to the encouragement of agriculture on sure grounds—yet his country had not experienced any of those misfortunes which display the multiplicity of *resources*. Louvois, by his amazing talents in every article of raising, maintaining and recruiting great armies, had given such a certainty of success to all his master's schemes, that he might without a stretch be called the arbiter of Europe. These two men, as *remarkable* perhaps as ever appeared in France, are most exquisitely portrayed by a very great politician; two of the touches are very striking:—"M. Colbert had given the King that turn which proved destructive

destructive of the French liberty, and this perhaps chiefly to secure his own power; for he easily foresaw, that if the princes of the blood, and the great nobility came to have any share in the government, it would be very difficult, if not impossible, for him to preserve himself; and thus the *interests* of a *whole nation* were sacrificed to those of a *single man*. M. de Louvois however went far beyond him; he was secretary of state, and of war, and had great abilities in his office; but as those abilities were of no use in time of peace, he determined that during his life there should be no such thing; and he had so much power over his master that he carried his point. And thus the *quiet* of all Europe gave way to *one man's convenience*."

So immensely great was the power of France at the period of which I am speaking, that it was matter of no small astonishment to many, to see her afterwards so speedily sink. A kingdom for one twenty years to be so wonderfully flourishing—and so terrible to all its neighbours—and the next twenty years, reverse the medal, and behold the same kingdom beaten, fallen, trampled on, in beggary and ruin. Strange contrast this! to come so speedily.

It must be confessed that there was at the bottom of all the *show*—and I may even say reality of power, an instability which to a penetrating eye must have denounced no *certainty* of success, and this merely from M. Colbert's extravagant encouragement of manufactures of all kinds, *at the expence* of agriculture: This circumstance was of infinite importance—and attended with such remarkable consequences that I am amazed it was not in that age remarked as exceeding bad politics. It would take up too much room to particu-

larize every hardship thrown on the *husbandman* to enable the *manufacturer* to work cheap: excessively severe taxes were laid on him, and him alone, in some cases; and all exportation of his products forbid under very severe penalties, that the price of provisions might be kept low at home. As great a politician as M. Colbert was, his measures were attended with an effect the very contrary of what he expected, for the prices of every thing became extremely fluctuating, which is very pernicious—and famine itself visited the kingdom frequently.—This was some balance to that power which became so formidable to Europe.

The daring spirit of insolent presumption, likewise, which infested the all-powerful Louvois, and the ambitious temper of Lewis XIV. so open to all the suggestions of his minister, hurried him into measures as ruinous to his own power, as pernicious to the *then* welfare of Europe. I say the welfare of *that* time; for as to the *present* and succeeding ages, the headstrong and impolitic conduct of France, became the surest and most certain means of clipping those soaring pinions, whose every flutter denounced perfidious attacks on all her neighbours.

It is inconceivable what might have been the consequences of a prudent foresight, a political quietness, and a watchful eye to his true interests in Lewis XIV. after the peace of Nimeguen: from that period to the Duke of Anjou's being declared King of Spain were two and twenty years: Let us suppose he had employed this precious time in improving his kingdom, even on his former plan—in encreasing her trade, planting colonies—encouraging manufactures—disciplining his numerous troops, laying the foundation of resources in the time of a future war—bringing his finances

finances into perfect order—fortifying his kingdom—and lastly, using unbounded means to encrease and strengthen his navy. Had he employed these twenty two years in such business—had he even been profuse in expensive pleasures and buildings at home, as such money would only have circulated amongst his own subjects, his taste in those affairs need not have been an obstruction to his great designs. One may reasonably apprehend that the effect of such a conduct would be no other than taking possession in his own name of the whole Spanish monarchy.

Ready at a moment's warning for the look'd for event, he would have executed his purpose in its full extent, before a single potentate in Europe would have been in a condition by any means to have opposed his will. French *industry* working on Spanish *materials*, would presently have endangered the liberties of Europe. If France, notwithstanding the most absurd and ridiculous conduct after the treaty of Nimeguen—in spite of every untoward circumstance, could for so many years oppose half Europe in alliance against her—bring such vast armies into the field, and at last carry her point, what would she not have been able to perform, after a two and twenty years preparation, with the whole Spanish monarchy in her hands! There would have been fifty times the probability of her adding fresh kingdoms to her provinces, than of the allies's wresting one from her.

When Lewis XIV. says M. de Boulainvilliers, fixed his attention to commerce, his kingdom contained from seventeen to eighteen millions of inhabitants, and consisted of 145,000,000 of acres of land. What a spectacle! With these two materials of power, Peter the Great would have

rendered himself master of Europe: Cromwell would have enslaved the universe. This vast monarchy, which furnished within itself every commodity necessary or luxurious, had the advantage of all the kingdoms in Europe.

The contrary conduct to that I have supposed, was attended with consequences as contrary, for the advantage of placing a grandson on the throne of an independent kingdom, were slight and trivial in comparison of the miseries to which France herself was reduced by the succession war. Miseries, which might have tended to the reinstating her neighbours in their rights—stripping her of those perfidious conquests which she made—and lastly have deprived her house of the Spanish throne—but for that composition of treason, villainy and meanness, the treaty of Utrecht.

Her state at the death of Lewis XIV. was, however, more deplorable, than I can recollect any European kingdom in these latter ages to have been; the loss of liberty excepted—in *that* respect she herself had seen much worse days. The lands uncultivated—the very business of agriculture almost forgot by the men—women and children holding the few ploughs that moved in that great kingdom—manufactures all in ruin—the coin vilely debased—all kind of credit, public as well as private, at an end—a debt of near three hundred millions sterling, without the least capacity of discharging a fiftieth part of it—the succession to the crown depending on the life of a sickly child—all together form an object of real wretchedness: and ought, beyond all doubt, in the ideas of every one, but such Frenchmen as glory in being slaves, to be considered as the very grave of Lewis XIV.'s grandeur. *Lewis the Great!* Ridiculous! Miserable as was the state of France at this tyrant's
decease

decease—she met with no pity : all Europe was too well acquainted with that spirit of insolence and cruelty, which revoked the edict of Nantes, which dragoon'd the protestants, which burnt the Palatinate—which bombarded Genoa ; to pity the people who bestowed the epithet, *Great*, on the perpetrator of these mean and cruel actions.

The conduct of the duke of Orleans, regent of France, clearly displayed, that he was of a genius far different from what the world had seen in the latter days of Lewis XIV. and here the fate of the kingdom again took a turn with the change of its sovereign. Had an impolitic prince succeeded to the administration of affairs, France must speedily have been undone in the utmost extent of the word. But that most subtle genius—who had the penetration to discern, in all circumstances, *the moment* which called for decisive and vigorous determinations—and the daring resolution, never to be an instant dismayed from his purpose—soon changed the face of affairs. By his admirable conduct, he laid the foundation of future grandeur, which nothing but a want of abilities in his successors could render abortive. The long peace, which lasted with but slight intermissions until the war of 1741, was of vast advantage to France : Her commerce and manufactures encreased at a great rate, and in consequence her marine. Till that period the despicable minister Fleury, through a *want* of abilities, was of no inconsiderable service to his country.

Peace, in the year forty-eight, came once more as a timely succour to repair the waste made by ambition in this unsettled kingdom. Notwithstanding the flashy success of marshal Saxe in his last campaign, the nation was nearly in such another

ther situation, as the peace of Utrecht had before relieved her from. I call it *flabby* success, not relatively to the general, but the kingdom—for what other term can we bestow on conquests made by armies recruited by famine—had not a wretched state of affairs *at home* reduced them to the last resort, is it to be supposed they would have desisted from pushing those advantages they had gained to some other ends, than merely the production of a peace? But in truth, the war was entered into, before France had sufficiently recruited her former losses. This is extremely evident from the very different figure she made in that war, and the succession one: She was formidable, and brought considerable armies into the field, but all her efforts apparently composed an edifice slightly raised and weakly founded, which made a fine show, and threatened to weather a severe storm, but dropt in pieces on the first rude gale that blew against it. The succession war began in the *decline* of Lewis the XIV.'s power, when his able ministers were no more, and all his generals changed much for the worse: nevertheless, that war was carried on with great spirit, however unsuccessful, during the period of thirteen years—prodigious efforts were made, the best part of Europe opposed—four hundred thousand men brought into the field—and in fine, a grandson fixt on the throne of Spain. Now the war of 1741, began after France had recruited many of her losses—it began when she was in every part of the world on *the advance* in wealth and power:—Its duration was but little more than half that of the former—the number of men she paid, the efforts she made, or the enemies she opposed were, beyond all comparison, less and meaner than in the other—she was equally *lucky* in the peace; that is in cajoling her enemies?

mies' negotiators—but notwithstanding all these circumstances, her situation in the year 1748, was extremely miserable—if we except the article of public debts (although her burthen of that sort was prodigious) it was nearly as wretched as in 1714. Her trade, marine and agriculture, utterly ruined—her inhabitants nearly starved by famine—her credit gone—and her finances in miserable disorder.

It appears plain from this comparison that the power of France was infinitely fallen in the war of 1741, from what it was in that of the suecession. The circumstances against her were not near so formidable—the duration of it much shorter—her efforts far weaker—but her distress at the end of it, nearly equal. All this proves evidently enough that the war of forty-one, was begun without a sufficiency of power for the purpose she took in hand—and yet, instead of, like Lewis XIV. having the Spanish monarchy to *defend*—she in that period had it a useful ally, with the addition of another (the king of Prussia) without whose assistance her very provinces would not have escaped.

But the peace of forty eight comes; a most fortunate event to the wretched state of that kingdom. She immediately, with the utmost diligence, applies herself to the re-establishment of her trade—her manufactures, agriculture, and finances. A kingdom of such extent, and abounding so much in commodities of various kinds, recruits speedily—France indeed recruits her losses of war so quick that her government is deceived at the appearance, and because the nation is in a flourishing way, is too ready to conclude it able to support a fresh war. At the period of which I am speaking, she, with great expedition, renewed her marine—put her

her finances in tolerable order—and by the force of an extensive and advantageous commerce, presently appeared with lustre in the eyes of her neighbours. Thus situated, her *all* depended once more on the abilities of her governors: Low as she had been reduced, it was beyond all doubt within the management of her ministry, to render her again a most formidable power and on foundations of no inconsiderable stability: this, however, was a business which required no short time; but all the patience and dexterity of the regent. I may say *patience* alone: for let but the kingdom of itself have time sufficient to recruit, and her *real* power will be perpetually on the increase.

We all know how well this conduct has been pursued. If an extremely penetrating politician had sketched out a plan for a traitor of a french minister to ruin his country, without its palpably appearing a matter of design—beyond all doubt, it would precisely have been the very system which has since taken place. The peace was concluded in 1748; the very next year embarkations of troops were made for Canada; in 1750 all America was in flames, and the english ambassador at Paris remonstrated.

These most unpolitical proceedings, had not even a shadow of pretence to support them in the opinions of the wisest men. The country in dispute was literally speaking of *no* other value to France, than the opportunity it gave her of bounding and infesting the British Colonies: a special pretence for a future war, when it might be entered into *politically*. This Colony, which was so dead a weight to France, could not in five centuries contribute to the healing a single wound in the mother country—yet this object, the French ministry thought of importance enough to run the hazard

hazard of a fresh war. What chance they apprehended at first, of this being the consequence, it is impossible to say—but when the point came to be negotiated, there was high time to settle every thing in a fair and equal manner, had they not meant either an immediate war, or supposed that the english ministry would suffer any thing rather than endure the thoughts of one.

They had certainly long beheld with apparent envy the consequence the british colonies were of to that nation; and expected, by collecting a vast force at the back of the center of them, to penetrate whenever the war came on at once to the sea, by which means all the british settlements would be divided, and their own rendered of fifty times the importance, by acquiring a territory open to the ocean, and joining to all their back colonies. A scheme admirably laid, and of prodigious consequence—many years were necessary to render the execution probable—and if begun too soon, the very success even would have been insufficient to repay the ruin of a fresh war precipitately undertaken.

We have, therefore, great reason to conclude, that the french ministry did not apprehend the english nation would engage in a war so soon as they afterwards did—they imagined they should be able to gain considerable time by negotiations, and make use of it by rendering themselves invincible; a natural supposition enough; but when they found the case different, and had time to recede, then came the unpardonable fault of proceeding. Without entering the least into the *right* of the two nations to the territories in question, it most certainly was the business of the french ministry to *avoid a war*: This is never a difficult matter with England—the least fairness and impartiality of
conduct

conduct would at any time satisfy that nation and prevent a rupture. Let it not be imagined that I mean because the english exceed all other nations in equity, but because a ministry in England has nothing so much to dread as a war; which, if their power be well or ill founded, is almost sure to overturn them: from hence all her neighbours have the utmost security of her never wantonly beginning—They have the security of private interest. I cannot recollect any ministry in that kingdom to which this maxim is not applicable: several have carried on wars vigorously, but then they were not the same that were in power on the *first disputes* and very beginning of the troubles.

But France, instead of avoiding, plunged headlong into a war. She determined to support her incroachments in America at all events, and the consequence was an open rupture. The wretchedness of this policy—the utter incapability of pursuing even the *interest of the war* she had so inadvertently engaged in, flagrantly appeared to all Europe. Her evident business was to make good her plan of the American war; she was strong in Canada, and gained a pitched battle; she ought therefore to have sent such a powerful army thither as would have rendered her so much superior to her enemy, that immediate conquest must follow, and this so early, as to be in no danger from english fleets; since an opportunity in this case once lost could never be recalled; for when the english navy was armed and in service, all reinforcements sent to America must be very trivial and very insecure of escaping. The french ministry had *time* sufficient to have performed all this over and over again, but they missed it—that is, they sent slight reinforcements, which was doing worse than nothing. I am far, however, from being satisfied that

that they had it in their power; and herein was one of the enormous blunders of beginning the war.

They entered into a quarrel which it was their immediate business to decide in a distant region, separated from them by a vast ocean. They neglected to render themselves securely powerful in this region *before* a war with a potentate infinitely their superior by *sea*—They began the war then without an ability of reinforcing it. Money—transports—sailors—*every thing* was wanting just at the moment *all* should have failed for America.

The war began indeed at a time when France was far, very far from being prepared for it. The cutting losses of the last were yet fresh bleeding: so short a time was very insufficient to repair one single misfortune in any one department of the State. Her finances were in miserable order—How indeed was it possible they should be otherwise!—Her navy not a tenth part manned—Her army wretchedly recruited, and still worse commanded—her magazines of every kind very deficient—the internal state of the kingdom very far from being recovered of former shocks—not the least appearance of an ability to furnish resources of any kind in a day of trouble—and lastly, no unanimity in her councils—no minister of apparent power or abilities, whose situation was tolerably secure.

So circumstanced, the ministry, of whomsoever it consisted, acted with a miserable want of foresight not at once to perceive the ruinous consequences of a war. Whatever success might attend their arms in the beginning of it—whatever lucky incidents might give them the colour of advantage, they ought to have foreseen the impossibility of a continuance—they surely should have known that
violent

violent necessity would infallibly disappoint all their hopes, however sanguine, if the war by any means was spun out to a greater length than they expected—all this ought to have appeared inevitable, let their military success have been as brilliant as their most ardent imaginations could, in their circumstances, paint.—But in what colours ought they to have viewed a want of success?—Why, precisely in one word, in the black hue of ruin and destruction.

The conduct of the war was big with the same absurdities as the management that caused it. There scarcely is to be met with in history such an uninterrupted run of ill success as attended the arms of France in the last war—the least defeat or misfortune was every where followed by dreadful consequences, which is the strongest proof that she had engaged in a conflict infinitely above her strength; that all the appearance of her power was deceitful—the foundation of it being of no solidity.—It must, however, be allowed, that in her negotiations for a peace she in some measure retrieved the evils of the war. Reduced to so very dreadful a condition, a peace was absolutely necessary; and whatever terms she might be able to gain, none could be so ruinous as continuing the war; to be therefore able to procure such wonderfully advantageous terms—such multitudes of concessions—was more than the most sanguine of her subjects could expect.

The dexterity of the french in gaining by negotiation what they lose by war, is indeed remarkable; nor can I think her neighbours, the english especially, have a twentieth part to fear from the power of her sword, as they have to dread the talents of her negociators—Or perhaps the position would be more properly worded if it was asserted, that

that the dreadful danger of all was a change in their own ministry nearly at the conclusion of a war. Whatever successes against France might have distinguished their arms, during the progress of it, they may be morally certain that all will be lost in the day of negotiation, when nothing but peace can secure such new ministers in their power, and that is ever the case. Never was any maxim verified in a stronger manner than this was at the treaty of Utrecht; in a very great measure likewise at that of Aix la Chapelle, and most remarkably so at that which concluded the last war. Never, therefore, let the enemies of France fear her power in the time of war—but the instability of their own councils in the hour of peace. This it was that snatched her from the jaws of ruin at the first and last of those treaties—and the best friend in the world to her at the other.

The state to which she was reduced by the last war, was so exceedingly low and miserable that a few campaigns, perhaps a single one more, would have fixed the acquisitions made by the English for ever in their hands. It is needless to point out the dreadful consequences to France of such an event; and that it would have been brought about almost without an effort is very palpable. The French power was become entirely despicable to that nation—she would have stripped her enemy of every colony, settlement and possession that was disjointed from the very kingdom of France itself—she would not have left even a shadow of any trade or naval force—so circumstanced she might, at a moderate expence, have bid defiance to France, and indeed all Christendom—carrying on half the commerce of the globe, in possession of the most valuable settlements of France and Spain—growing more rich and potent from the very causes

causes that ruined her enemies—she might have kept all her conquests, and gained fifty times more from a perpetual french and spanish war than the best treaty ever made could enrich her with.

But the advocates for a peace in England urged strongly the necessity of concluding a war which cost them so many millions annually. Weak and despicable politicks! They did not seem to consider, that a peace whenever made was nothing more than a respite to the french to enable them to recruit their losses by their trade, and render them speedily strong enough (*according to the ideas of the french government*) again to try the success of war: and that *one million* expended with judgment in the course of a prosperous war, is of more effect than the chance of *five* in any future one; when ministers, commanders and measures on all sides may be so totally different. Nor can any one venture to assert, that another campaign, carried on against the french and spanish settlements at the expence of twenty millions sterling, would not have been attended, in all probability, with more success than an hundred millions spent in a succeeding one after the enemy is recruited by trade and commerce. I state that sum, supposing it all expended on *maritime* measures, and that five millions annually were necessary to be sent by the english to Germany to effect their conquests elsewhere.

It should be remembered, that there is a vast difference between a million spent against an enemy almost crushed, and against an enemy in the beginning of a war, when both parties start nearly equal. The million, in the latter case, possibly evaporates without a single advantage being gained by it—the enemy is prepared, and very little ground, if any, is gained: it is, therefore,

therefore very apparent that many millions must be expended *even in a successful war*, for *one* to take great effect: That is, the enemy must be reduced; but when he is reduced every sixpence takes effect—every blow reaches his very vitals—resistance is faint and languid—then is the time to flinch not at great expences which operate so strongly to prevent future ones.

The English, on the contrary, expend immense sums to reduce their enemy—when he is reduced, they quarrel and become factious amongst themselves; new ministers come into power, and they make a peace to establish that power—their enemies regain the chief of their losses—by those means they recruit their worn out forces, become rich again by that trade which is given them by their conquerors, and in fine, try the chance of war again—then must all the former preparatory millions be again expended by the English, perhaps to no effect: Whereas one tenth of the expence added to that of the former war in continuing it, would have so strengthened themselves by cutting off the resources of their enemies, as to defeat the very idea of future attacks.—It is this wretched conduct of the English, in the conducting treaties which will, if any thing of this matter can, prove the ruin of that nation. When they are political enough to leave the making a peace to the same ministry that have carried on a victorious war—they will see this truth; but the factions of their court will never let the supposition be realized.

The ministry in France is at present but very indifferently fixed. The death of Madame la Pompadour, left the whole court split in factious parties; and the present countenance of affairs looks much like a continuation of female influence. There is no minister of tried and known abilities

—none who owes his advancement to any thing, but intrigues of no bright aspect. While this is the case there must be a melancholy instability of councils, which will in any system of measures, that may be pursued, occasion a weak, languid, and mistaken administration: But the least change of men for the better, will immediately be attended with a change, perhaps of *measures*, but most certainly of executive *management*.

It is however extremely probable that the French ministry, of whomsoever it may consist, and whatever general plan of european politicks may be embraced, will continue to cherish the arts of peace; and assist, as far as they are able, the people, in recruiting the losses of the war. They will probably aim at effecting this by encouraging agriculture, commerce and manufactures; or, in other words, they will let the kingdom remain quiet for sometime, and repair its own misfortunes, some advantageous laws may be made for promoting this matter, in proportion to the abilities of the ministers.

It is however highly improbable that they will long maintain the present peace. France is a country of great extent; admirably compact, and has naturally great resources—these circumstances, with the addition of her foreign commerce will presently enable her again, to carry that countenance, which will again deceive her government. She will be recruited in appearance, much sooner than in reality; and this difference will be the cause of another war, kindling Europe again into flames. A very few years will see the face of affairs greatly changed in France, from what it was at the last peace: Her commerce will presently flourish—her seamen greatly increase, and a vast navy be built—it will not follow from hence, that she will then be powerful enough again to encounter

counter the English; but her ministers, and the people possibly themselves, may think so---a new war will soon be the consequence---and she will again probably be reduced to the same situation as before.

I am far from being clear that it is not the system of France, always to engage in a war with England, the moment she thinks herself able; and this, let the prospect of success be what it may. The aim of this conduct evidently is, to ruin her enemy by the mere weight of expence. The French ministry do not so much consider what they gain or lose, as the number of millions added to the national debt of England. Encrease but that to a degree to hurt publick credit, and they will think their business done. Without this credit England cannot command vast supplies; and a national debt certainly *may* encrease to the ruin of a country.

The French ministry will probably, on this plan, renew the war as soon as they falsely suppose the kingdom recruited: They will add fifty or sixty millions to the debt of England: They will themselves be exhausted. A peace recruits them---another war adds fifty or sixty more: The misery of France, in the mean time is little considered: Every object is included in the ruin of England: The power of France is considered, not at what it is in reality, but at what it is on comparison with that of her grand enemy. Now the government of France is a resource great and endless, on comparison with the state of her neighbour---and however the kingdom may be reduced, a few years peace will give her a flourishing *appearance*; and if she should again start with her enemy, just involved in bankruptcy, the consequences would probably be more in her favour than are at first apparent.

But all such management, however politically it might tend to ruin England, must necessarily ruin France likewise: It is true she would no longer have that formidable *credit* to fight against, but then she herself would no longer bear the weight she does at present, on comparison with her *other* neighbours: A point of no small consequence.

The changes of the European system are so various and great, that the power of states and princes, not heard of within a few centuries, break forth formidable to their neighbours; inso-much that no potentate can be in the least secure *in general*, because intirely so *in particular* to one enemy. Thus France might demolish England by putting her to immense expences; but to effect it she must weaken herself to such a degree, that a powerful neighbour would be enabled to dismember provinces from her.

These reflections may be considered as wild and improbable; but it should be considered that whatever might be the motive which occasioned the respective wars, yet they have all tended to one point since the reign of King William, that of running England immensely in debt. Those debts of the English, form a very remarkable figure in the politicks of the modern world; and it must be confessed, no one can say, with any certainty, how far the funding scheme may be carried by a nation whose agriculture and commerce are so amazingly supported. It must likewise be allowed that France might possibly be utterly undone before she could break the enchantment of English credit—but this supposition is formed on another, *viz.* that England gave up continental expences, and spent her publick money only amongst her own subjects; which however will scarcely be the case.

What the fate of France might prove, if the affairs of her grand enemy were conducted in a truly political manner, and the tide of her wealth rolled into that vast sphere of dominion, her navy; it is impossible hardly to conjecture. I have sketched the future politicks of both nations, on the supposition of their both continuing to act a false part; France in going to war at all, and England when engaged, in making peace so soon. Let us now imagine the conduct of the latter kingdom to change. Such disquisitions are very far from being of no use; they throw into a variety of lights, the consequences of publick measures, and by stating the comparative power of kingdoms, display in no uncertain scale what each may have reason to hope or fear.

In the next war, these two kingdoms will, it may be supposed, act the chief part. Considering the present situation of affairs in Europe, it is natural to conjecture that France will have the alliance of the Bourbon family in her favour, but that England will notwithstanding prove too strong for all her enemies: Her success will be trifling at the beginning, the nature of her constitution preventing those previous measures which are attended with brilliancy at the very opening of a war: Her expences will be very great before any acquisition of importance graces her arms: But when once she is thoroughly roused—and the activity of her motions in full play, there can scarce be any doubt (provided her ministry is capable, and firmly fixed in their power) but she will command prodigious success. Let us imagine her acting on a truly national plan—rejecting all continental expences, and exerting all the efforts of her power on maritime expeditions. These are of no small extent, for her navy would find full employment for an

hundred thousand land forces. If her vast power was all thrown into such a channel, she would in every part of the world prove invincible: The strongest, as well as the most distant colonies, of her enemies would be conquered---their own coasts menaced and burnt---their trade, commerce, and shipping, utterly ruined. These are facts which we *have* seen, while millions were lavished in Germany: Let us only suppose the same scene once more before our eyes; with this addition---That she was political enough to continue the war until her enemies were reduced to such a state as she would have nothing to fear from them; or in other words, to such a state as she reduced them in the last war, *without* listening to any terms of peace. Let her then carry on the war on a more contracted plan, and at a lighter expence, to feel the benefit of that all-comprehensive trade which such a war always yields her. Her enemies reduced to so low a state---the little remains of their trade daily destroyed---the wretchedness of their situation every hour encreasing---would accept, in a few unexpensive years, her own terms. She would then retain all those acquisitions which were of considerable benefit to her trade; restoring the rest, and giving peace to her enemies. ---In this manner would she amply repay herself for the expences of war: Those who know not the consequences of trading acquisitions, know not how soon the interest of fifty or sixty millions might be paid by the produce of a single sugar island---of an African port---of an East Indian settlement. ---The island of Guadaloupe, in the West Indies, is to any nation worth sixty millions sterling. ---Were such suppositions as these once realized; (and as to the conquering part, how lately have we seen them realized!) France would be sunk to that state

state of insignificance which her sister Spain has so long occupied. For it is trade alone which gives the French nation the appearance of formidable power—and here it may not be amiss to say a word or two on the reality of the present power of France, so greatly magnified by some enthusiastic admirers.

If we consider the event of all the wars since the reign of King William, I apprehend it will appear that France has been ever since on the decline. Spain was terrible to Europe when her *name* only remained—and this is precisely the case with France. We have been so long accustomed to have terrible ideas of the formidable power of the French monarchy, and so used in the present age, to the full measure of her old ambition, that it is with difficulty we are brought to confess her power, and the reputation of her power, to be very different things. In fact, she has enjoyed her day—but through the wild ambition of her government, that day was but of short duration; and those who think her now in the full possession of her consequence, are strangely mistaken: This mistake however has been, and is most fatal from its forming the principle of the late, and present, French politicks; for, in pursuance of it, she has been drawn into a variety of ambitious projects, far above her declining strength: Every disappointment; nay—every *success* has made her ring with hollow instability to her very vitals. She even acquires a flourishing trade, only to have the regular mortification of most indubitably seeing it destroyed; and this without being recompensed by grand successes in her land operations.

The declination of Spain became at last more visible to Europe, by the contrast of the rising power of France, but France falls without any new

power, *whose principle is ambition*, rising in her stead. This is certainly the age of England; but her constitution prevents her vast power from being in its nature formidable to any of her neighbours, that do not unjustly provoke her. But if we only consider opulence—real power, *when engaged* in war—and every other circumstance that can contribute to render a country flourishing—she is beyond all contradiction the first power in Europe.

Those who are apt to reject this opinion with disdain, should remember that I found the continuance of such a superiority, on the supposition that France does not entirely change the principles of her conduct; which is what scarce any will be favourable enough to her to expect. Was her ministry to renounce all ideas of any but such wars as common reputation and self defence urged her to engage in, (which, considering her extent of territory, would scarce ever happen) and cultivate alone the arts of peace, every one must allow that she would retain her title, to be the first potentate of the christian world; but she is already so reduced, below her natural degree of strength, that it would require uncommon parts, and the most steady application to the interests of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, in her ministers, to raise her again *really* to rival England*; and then to

* Il sembloit à en juger par l'entendûe des trois roïaumes, (it would have been more just to have quoted the population of the three kingdoms,) qu'il étoit physiquement impossible que l'Angleterre pût jamais se mesurer avec la France, ni même qu'elle pût parvenir à un certain degré de population, de puissance & de richesses, puisque ci devant elle ne produisoit que peu de grains & dans aucun tems point de vin; & encore, aujourd'hui on n'y trouve point de bois à bâtir. Ce sont la tout autant d'articles nécessaires à soutenir la vie, à la rendre

to lay aside the ambition of destroying that neighbour, and be content with the fair emulation of the arts of industry. Such a conduct would be attended with wonderful effects—indeed too great for the most sanguine French patriot, even to hope for.

The political conduct of France, with relation to the rest of Europe, depends very much upon her measures with England; because, let it be dictated by her true interest, or by her ambition, the success must greatly depend on the state of her power—and this depends entirely on her good or ill success against England. If frequent wars are her object, with that neighbour, her formidableness, or friendship, to the rest of Europe, will rise or fall in proportion to the degree of distress such wars reduce her to. And this maxim is so extremely well founded, and so invariable, that the influence of France over her other neighbours, whether in peace or war, will ever be the greatest, when she is at peace with England; her power of annoying her enemies on the continent, while England is engaged against her, is now become very trivial; but even that low degree of power will vary, in proportion to her success in her English wars.

The great theatre of her continental politicks, is Germany. It is one of the maxims of her government,

rendre commode & agréable, & a procurer à la société divers secours dont elle ne peut se passer. Mais la grande liberté dont le peuple jouit dans toutes ses affaires, & dans a manière depenser: un goût décidé pour les arts, sa marine & l'agriculture, vocations que chacun choisit à sa volonté, & qu'il cultive suivant son inclination. Toutes ses circonstances réunies ont mis cette île ci-devant peu connue & regardée anciennement comme barbare, dans paroît vouloir l'emporter sur tous les autre païs. *Refl. sur l'Industrie, p. 8. Mem. de la Société de Berne, 1764.*

government, and most certainly will continue so, to have a very watchful eye to the fluctuations of power, amongst that assembly of sovereigns. Germany has been a vast gulph, that has swallowed up an infinity of French men, and French treasure. The ambition of gaining territory on that side, where the dominions of so many petty princes border on France, has long induced her to spend immense sums, in sowing dissention amongst them, and pour vast armies into the heart of their country, that the whole, both her friends and enemies, may be weakened, and at last plundered by their *friend and persecutor*.

If we look over a map of the frontier of France, on this side, and towards Flanders, we shall find a vast track of conquered territory wrested from German princes and states; and such acquisitions as these, with weakening the whole body, is the aim of France in all her German measures. Even while the house of Austria was the object of her jealousy, she never lost sight of adding to her dominions, from whatever party the addition came: Indeed this is the quarter where any attempts of that nature have the greatest probability of succeeding.

There can be little doubt but her politicks, in this respect, will continue the same, whatever changes of system may ensue. Her allying by turns, with each of the great potentates of the empire, is strictly conformable to it. While the house of Austria was the first power in Germany, she connected herself closely with Saxony—and successively with Bavaria, and Brandenburg, to throw the whole upon an equality, and thereby enable them all the easier to weaken themselves: The power of Prussia no sooner *appeared* to preponderate, than she forsook that alliance, and struck

struck in with her old enemy Austria: And if Prussia ceases to support that vast *reputation*, I cannot call it power, which she has lately gained, or should so far decline, as again to permit the scale to turn in favour of Austria; France will, in such a case, again most undoubtedly become her friend. And should any third power rise in Germany, more formidable than either of these, France will most certainly become the enemy of such power.

This system of throwing her weight, first into one scale, and then another—and ever over-running and destroying as much as possible of the whole, must be attended with the effect she expects, that of weakening all: And in the mixture of interests—and the jumble of treaties it occasions has, and may probably continue to gain her *some* acquisitions—but whether the value of them will ever repay her for the immense waste of blood and treasure, which is lavished to gain them, is a question I should never scruple to answer in the negative. The conquests of this kind, which she made while in the zenith of her power, were certainly very considerable—nor was the acquisition of Loraine, within our memory, of slight importance; but I very much doubt whether she will ever more be able to effect any thing of the like consequence: Her resources are so reduced, and her ambition so great—that her future efforts, in the many wars in which she may probably involve her neighbours, will be weak and languid—the brilliancy of her first attacks, may possible have some éclat, but the least spirited resistance—the least following ill success, will display the little solidity her formidableness is built upon.

Was France unexpectedly, however, to pursue a pacific system; weak as she might prove in attacking

ing Germany, she will probably always be strong enough to repel any attacks she herself might receive from that quarter; I mean, ambitiously undertaken, and not in the course of a war raised by herself. For there is such a vast diversity of interests in Germany, that she will ever, (as she ever has) be able to secure a strong party in her favour; otherwise her terror at a germanic alliance against her, would be very great, for those princes united, are infinitely more than a match for France.

It is not only on the side of Germany, that the French ministry will probably continue to plan acquisitions—but on that of Flanders. The austrian provinces lye most invitingly to her ambition: Their situation admirable; and their importance to France prodigious. The consideration of these provinces will certainly have great weight in all her future connections with the house of Austria: If Prussia, in some future, but perhaps not distant period, should again receive an ambitious attack from that house, and should again prove formidable to its arms, the assistance of France will probably again be purchased; and at no low rate: In such a case, her ally could satisfy her in no other manner, half so readily, as by cession of these provinces, which are most certainly of little value to the austrian family, being so disjointed from their other dominions—and yielding no revenue, further than is expended in the civil and military establishments. It is not, however, to be supposed, that a territory so valuable to France, would be ceded to her but conditionally, and only to take place in return for such assistance as should put the house of Austria again in possession of Silesia: The exchange would be infinitely for their advantage.

On the contrary, if the political conduct of France leads her to her old alliance with Prussia, and so connected, a war should break out between her and Austria, these provinces will equally remain the object of her ambition, and in all probability, of her attacks. She can no where else make conquests of such importance, or, in all probability, so weakly defended.

As to Holland, her friendship, or hate, is not of that consequence to France, which some are apt to imagine: That wonderful commonwealth, which was so long an object of amazement to her neighbours, has been some time on the decline. In this instance, it should seem, that wars vigorously pursued, in certain periods of time, are of benefit to a nation—for never did Holland so greatly thrive as in the midst of the most furious ones; and the time in which her power has sunk, has been to her a time of peace—and she is so far sunk as to be greatly under the influence of French councils: Her dread of a war is so lively, that France will in all probability continue to preserve that ascendancy over her—and in such a degree as to keep her totally quiet, while the Austrian provinces, if such an event was to ensue, were added to that kingdom.

The political connections of France, with the Italian potentates, from the almost invincible boundaries which nature has fixed between the two countries, can never be attended with any acquisitions. The French have poured armies by thousands into Italy, only to have the certain mortification of being almost immediately driven out again: Italy has been the grave of their soldiery, and the wisest conduct France can pursue will ever be to leave Italian quarrels, to Italian decisions. But if her assistance is there wanting to the house

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of Austria, she may be indemnified by cessions in Flanders, but never by conquests in Italy.

There is a great probability of the present friendship between France and Spain continuing; and in this point they both, but more especially the former, pursue their true interests; for France will ever gain more by peace than war with Spain. The family compact, concluded between all the branches of the house of Bourbon, is a treaty of such close alliance, as is not to be met with in history. But those who think it will ever be of dangerous consequences to England, seem to forget the late war, in which Spain paid, in one year, so severely—so *very* severely, for her partiality to France—for the misery of not being governed by Spanish councils: Nothing is so fatal to that country as a war with England; and if the Spanish people are not the very drudges of the French, they will carefully avoid *such* close connections for the future. Connections of amity are of advantage, but not such as lead her into wars with the people, upon earth, the most formidable to her.

The connections between France and the northern potentates, particularly Sweden, are so necessary to her, whenever she turns her attention to her navy, that there is no doubt of a continuance of them. Besides this motive, the weight of those powers, when a general war is kindled, is of great seeming consequence to the french politicks. I say *seeming* consequence; for in reality, the interests of France, are chiefly promoted by the northern trade, and the supply she gains of ships, and naval stores—not by their arms in time of war.

From the most accurate review that can be made, of the neighbours of France, it plainly appears,

appears, that it is her interest to live on good terms with all: It highly behoves her to follow this plan, if it proceeded only from the view of recovering herself from the severe losses she has met with in her three or four last wars——this indeed is the plan she ought to follow, be her schemes ever so ambitious: For there cannot be worse politicks, than to pursue such schemes by way of war, before the road is paved by the arts of peace. If she would again be the terror of her neighbours, she must first become a harmless, inoffensive, peaceable people, recovering her resources in the midst of cultivation and trade, and dread a war, as the greatest bar to her ambitious designs: When she really feels her nerves once more braced with *genuine* strength; (which by the bye, will not be in haste,) then will be the time for military exploits to come in play. But however political this conduct would be, there is no reason to expect it will be the plan of the French ministry——There is a greater probability, that their future conduct will be like that which has so often thrown Europe in flames, which have blaz'd almost to their destruction——That they will speedily be deceived by a fair appearance, and believe France to be recruited, when she will, in fact, be infinitely removed from that state——and consequently kindle new wars, and as necessarily be speedily exhausted: This will probably be her politicks——she will make scarce any acquisitions——she will fall to decay, and become in the next age, what Spain was in the last.

LETTER II.

I FLATTER myself you will think me guilty of no impropriety, in giving agriculture the pre-eminence, in my view, of the present state of France : In all kingdoms, this first and original art—this foundation, of all others must be persued and encouraged, or the rest will be faint and languid.

There is no country in the world more happily situated, for a vigorous cultivation of the earth, than France. The climate is mild and temperate, the soil scarce any where barren—and the situation between two seas, gives her a million of advantages in the articles of commerce, which are an immediate assistance to husbandry. It must however be confessed, that this art has not met with that attention in France, the real importance of it deserves.

Where ever great numbers of people have existed, we may take it for granted, agriculture has been followed ; for without it they could not live. It is one of the most melancholy reflections humanity can suggest, that the records of mankind are filled with miserable butcheries, while the cultivation of the earth is scarce ever mentioned. A few pages would give us a complete compilation of the history of agriculture, which feeds mankind—millions of volumes are filled with the art of war, which destroys them. Such are the cruel prejudices of this world !

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This blind infatuation is to be regretted in the french writings, equally with those of other countries, until the present age. Very little concerning husbandry is to be met with in any, before the reign of that great and good prince, Henry the fourth. He, and his minister Sully, understood and loved agriculture; and were the most remarkable men in this, as well as other respects, in modern times. The King's ideas of national improvements, were of a larger extent than the minister's, comprehending the encouragement of manufactures; but the latter, with more justness, was of another opinion, and condemned manufactures until that first great manufacture of the soil was complete; accordingly, he encouraged agriculture all in his power, and by greatly adding to the ease and comfort of the lower people, made them fond of that profession which rendered them happy: Nor was his master backward in promoting the minister's conduct; and agriculture so attended to, made large strides, and flourished more in France than in England, or any neighbouring kingdom: And herein, in a good measure, was laid the foundation of the future power of France.

It is impossible that wiser measures could have been taken, than were by these two truly great men, for the restoration of France. Harrassed with all kinds of civil convulsions, of a great number of years; it was necessary, if ever she was expected to make a considerable figure, to allow her full time to recruit her losses, and likewise, during that time, to pursue such a conduct, as would lend the most helping hand, to render her tranquillity flourishing. This was not to be done by hunting after foreign commerce, while her soil was uncultivated; nor by establishing manufactures at home, while hands were every where wanting in husbandry

husbandry: The only just plan was, to give all possible encouragement to the cultivation of the earth; and thereby to render the people, who had groaned so long under the oppression of a civil war, easy and comfortable.

These were the measures of that great king, and his truly faithful minister; agriculture, under their encouragement, flourished—the lands, which had been so long uncultivated, were covered with corn—the peasants were affluent and happy—the general face of the kingdom was changed—it gave manifest signs of speedily becoming most flourishing and formidable.—Cabals, factions, confusion, civil wars, and every horrid contrast, to this happy period, then ensued: It may easily be supposed, that the voice of husbandry was heard no more; indeed we know nothing of the french agriculture during that period, and in all probability there was nothing in it worthy to be known. In those times of publick confusion, it infallibly sinks to a wretched state of insignificance. So great a power has a *few* of ruining the *many*! The number of men engaged in civil war, is always vastly short of the number who follow their common occupations—the proportion will not be found to be one in an hundred; and yet what misery and wretchedness does that one man bring upon his hundred neighbours!

The settlement of the kingdom, by Lewis XIV. and the encouragement of arts succeeded. What miserable inconsistencies is this world full of? The same people that gave the glorious title of *Great* to Henry, bestowed it likewise on Lewis! —What did I say? *The same people*. No: The PEOPLE surnamed the first—the *courtiers* the latter. What a difference! Immortal fame ought ever to attend the one—contempt the other.

But

But I am not here to characterise these two princes; I would speak only of agriculture.

Colbert soon became the chief minister of Lewis. This man had certainly great ideas; and withal a spirit of improvement, which blazed out with wonderful lustre. He apprehended that a vast trade, and numerous manufactures, would enrich the kingdom so prodigiously, as to give her unfathomable resources. He accordingly rejected the plan of Sully, and *began* with establishing a vast variety of manufactures at a prodigious expence: neither did he spare any cost to render France the first trading power in the universe. But with design to enable his manufacturers to sell cheaper than those of other countries, he thought it requisite to have bread at as low a price as possible; from that *apparently* just reasoning, that the cheaper a manufacturer could live, the cheaper the manufacture could be afforded. To effect his design, he prohibited all exportation of corn from the kingdom, and even greatly cramped the transportation of it from one province to another. These measures were intended to give a plenty at home: not content with this, he, in times of distress, (and even before they came) greatly loaded the husbandmen with impositions and taxes, that the manufacturer's share of those burthens might be the less.

All this management formed a system of policy, infinitely more wretched than one could believe would ever have entered the head of a man of genius, who had the example of Sully before him. Every measure was attended with an effect directly contrary to that he expected. Instead of the price of the necessaries of life *falling*, they *rose*, and became extremely fluctuating and various; corn was sometimes a drug, at others, immensely

dear, and famine itself appeared almost periodically. These circumstances ruined the agriculture of France, without being of any service to her manufactures; for it is a fact, universally known, that workmen in no country, will labour for more than a subsistence; and if that subsistence can be earned, in three days, in sufficiency for a week, only three days will they labour. It was very apparent in France, after an excessively plentiful harvest, that a general idleness ensued amongst their manufacturing hands—on the contrary, in some years, the most industrious diligence could not keep them from starving.

But had their manufactures flourished, in proportion to the depression of husbandry, as Colbert seemed to imagine; nevertheless, what the nation gained with one hand, she lost by the other: her profits by manufactures, were ten times overmatched by her losses in husbandry. Besides, there was a standing disadvantage attending the luxurious manufactures set on foot by Colbert; they did not all find their way into foreign countries—many remained at home; the nation became luxurious and expensive in these articles, in proportion with her neighbours; this occasioned vast quantities of money, and numbers of hands, to be perpetually drawn off from the culture of the land, until France became almost a desert.

The resources likewise, which this celebrated minister expected would always attend such numbers of manufactures, proved as delusive as the rest of the scheme. In respect of perfect population; that is to say, the number of valuable people—manufactures improperly managed yield none. It is a lively and vigorous cultivation which alone breeds a race of hardy and courageous soldiers—The true military genius of the french decayed when

when an immense number of manufacturers entered her armies in the recruits which necessarily were drawn from that set of people. But this circumstance was not of such striking consequence, as the hurt which population in general received from so imperfect a cultivation as took place in France.

It is supposed that manufactures add prodigiously to the population of any country—and one reason is, because we see manufacturing towns so very populous: But it is well known that the increase of mankind in cities, is in no proportion to what it is in the country—Great numbers of people collected together, form an *appearance* of population; but this proves nothing; the point, is their increase: Is that so great among ten thousand people in a town, as ten thousand spread over the country? By no means.

The agriculture of the kingdom, wanting encouragement so greatly, was attended with those effects, which the Duke of Sully, had he lived in Colbert's time, would have predicted. Those resources, which the latter minister depended so much upon, proved in a good measure delusive. And France, while so busily employed in the manufacture of trinkets, gewgaws, and *superfluities* of all kinds, became dependent on her neighbours for *bread*: and during the course of many years, expended almost as much for corn, as she received for manufactures. So great was her distress, in this respect, that Lewis XIV. more than once recruited his armies, by providing *them* with bread, and taking no care of supplying the *people in general*. Nor were the resources of revenue less precarious than those of men; the numerous manufactures had not diffused those truly substantial riches which result from a vigorous cultivation of the soil—they rested in the undertakers, and monopolizers of

expensive works—great fortunes were acquired—a vast inequality among the people, became visible—those branches of luxury, which are beyond all doubt pernicious, were encouraged—and thus the acquisition of riches, in numerous instances, was of no advantage to the increase of national industry and wealth: all of which circumstances are totally different with the acquisitions made by agriculture.

It cannot be asserted that France would have proved victorious, in the last war of Lewis XIV. and continued formidable in spite of all opposition: such an assertion would be ridiculous; her efforts were beyond her natural strength, and all the world must know, that *such* repeated wars will ruin the best conducted kingdom.—All I contend for is, that her resources would have proved more substantial in their nature, and more stable in their foundations; and her armies composed of better soldiers—these circumstances, every one must allow, might have been attended with great consequences—at all events the people would have been better able to support their losses—they would not have been so dreadfully harrassed by famine, which in some years the french themselves, however they may admire Colbert, with very great reason asserted, was more terrible and burthensome to them, than all the taxes and impositions, all the military severities, their government could devise. In fine; there is great reason to believe, had agriculture been the minister's object, the nation would to the last have proved more flourishing.

Under the duke Regent, husbandry received that encouragement which peace always yields her. The politicks of the state did not change, but the continuance of the peace made some amends for the want of particular encouragement. From his death,

death, to the end of the war of 1741, agriculture continued on the old footing on which Colbert had left it; the consequences nearly the same. The resources of the kingdom were trivial; the number of her people continued to *decrease*, even while her commerce was on the *increase*; and that war was actually concluded by famine, the french government being *obliged* to agree to a peace in the midst of Marshal Saxe's successes in Flanders, because their people *starved*.

"The dream of the ruin of Holland," says M. de Boulainvilliers, "began under the reign of Lewis XIV. and was going to be verified in the last wars of Lewis XV. Our generals had scarce any thing to prevent their arriving at the gates of Amsterdam. That industrious nation, so active in commerce, but always on the verge of ruin in a war, had no other resource than embarking for the new worlds for which they made dispositions, when a want of bread, or to speak more properly, famine, which menaced many of our provinces, stopped our victorious arms, and the most important of our conquests*."

From that period, it must be confessed, that the french began to see a little clearer into the vast importance of agriculture. The cultivation of that immense kingdom they inhabited, then began to come a little in competition with manufactures. Still, however, no memorable laws were enacted for its encouragement—but the dawning of a just spirit was seen among individuals, and the ministry applauded them. The last war succeeding so speedily, interrupted these happy omens of future policy: but, at the same time, made a strong impression on the necessity of pursuing them, in the distresses to which France was again reduced, for

* *Les Int. de la France mal entendus.*

want of a vigorous cultivation of her own soil. No sooner was the peace concluded, than agriculture evidently became a material object with her ministry: they saw with envy that England supported immense expences with ease, from her trade; and when that trade came to be enquired into, by far the most beneficial branch of it, was found to be the trade of corn.

Actuated with just ideas, and animated with becoming spirit, agriculture was no longer neglected. I shall here insert an extract from a very sensible english author, on the advances lately made by the french.—The writer speaks from exceeding good intelligence; and his remarks are extremely pertinent and just.

“ After the peace of Aix la Chapelle, almost all the european nations, by a sort of tacit consent, applied themselves to the study of agriculture, and continued to do so, more or less, even amidst the universal confusion that soon succeeded. The french found by repeated experience, that they could never maintain a long war, or procure a tolerable peace, without they raised corn enough to support themselves in such a manner as they should not be obliged to submit to harsh terms on the one hand, or perish by famine on the other. Their king (in imitation of a laudable policy in China, where every person, who has made any remarkable improvements in husbandry, is created a mandarin of the eighth class) vouchsafed to give publick encouragement to agriculture, and has been present at the making several experiments. The great and rich, of various rank and stations, followed this example: The very ladies put in for their share of fame, in such a commendable undertaking; nay, even aged king Stanislaus (like another Dioclesian, in his retirement from a throne) amuses himself with

with husbandry, in the solitudes of Lorrain, and has even corresponded on the subject.

France gave a wise attention to husbandry, even during the hurry and distresses of her last war. Some prize questions in rural oeconomics were *then* proposed annually, particularly by the two academies of Lyons, and Bourdeaux. Many alterations, for the better, were made by the society for improving agriculture in Britany.

Since the conclusion of the peace, matters have been carried on with great vigour. The university of Amiens has made various proposals to the publick, for the advancement of husbandry; whilst the Marquis de Tourbilli (a writer who goes chiefly on experience) has the principal direction of a *georgical* society, established lately at Tours.

That at Rouen likewise deserves our notice*: nor have the king and his ministers thought it unworthy of their attention. The archbishop† of the diocese is one of the members.

I will add nothing further on this subject, except, that no longer ago than in the year 1761, there were *thirteen* societies existing in France established by royal approbation, for the promoting of agriculture; and these *thirteen* societies had *nineteen* co-operating societies belonging to them, whenever it happened that a district was too large to be effectually taken care of by one society.—If our nation is not in a lethargy, I think this may be

* See *Deliberations & memoires de la Societé Royale d' Agriculture de la Generalité de Rouen*, 8vo, tom. I. 1763.

† This humane and considerate prelate (M. de la Rochefoucault) destroyed, when he first came to his diocese, a large warren of hares and rabbits, which he found on his demesnes, merely because they did great damage to the neighbouring husbandmen.

sufficient to awaken it—A stolen march, occasions the worst sort of defeat, either in war, or political administration.

In the year 1756, his most Christian majesty issued out an edict, by which he exempted from land-tax, (that is to say, in fields newly broken up) for the space of twenty years, all cultivators of madder, in drained marshes, and other waste neglected grounds. [But at the same time, let it be remembered, that publick encouragement in France was given to the draining of fens and bogs, first in the year 1607, and then in 1641.]

As a proof that something has been done in culture of madder, the board of agriculture, held at Beauvais, made it plain in 1762, to all persons concerned in dying, that madder raised in that district, and (contrary to common custom) used when the roots are fresh gathered, gave a finer tincture than the Zeeland madder, and went farther, in a proportion of eight to five.

August the 16th, 1762, it was also ordered in council, that no tax for the space of twenty years, should be levied upon grounds newly broken up; provided the said grounds had lain twenty years in an uncultivated state.

Many other encouragements have been since given to the cultivators of lands: And, if I mistake not, all packets and letters of correspondence to and from most of these societies lately established, are exempted from the payment of postage."

But the greatest encouragement to agriculture, which the french in these latter times have experienced, is the allowance of a free EXPORTATION OF CORN: which was granted by a perpetual and irre-

irrevocable edict in the year 1764. This measure was founded on the truest policy; and the wisest attention to the conduct of the english. That people became *great* from their exportation of corn; but such exportation was chiefly owing to a bounty granted by parliament—and this is the last point of encouragement which France (in that respect) at present wants, to render her more powerful than the acquisition of conquered provinces will ever effect.

From the system adopted at present in that kingdom, with regard to agriculture, there is great reason to believe, that a bounty on exportation will next ensue; and it will certainly be allowed that such a measure bids fair for being most conducive to render the husbandry of France truly flourishing.

The number of taxes and impositions, under which the french farmer groans, will most certainly be a hindrance to a complete cultivation while they continue; and if the french court should see their real interest, they will effect a change in this part of their revenue: but if they should not be so nobly extensive in their views, much would be effected by a large bounty on the exportation of corn—indeed such a bounty *might* be so managed, as in a great measure to make amends for the want of better laws.

It is incredible what an effect such a measure would be attended with, in a kingdom of such a great extent as France—so finely situated—so fertile in the production of corn—and so advantageously watered by navigable rivers. French agriculture would speedily carry a new face; for nothing is so highly encouraging of a vigorous cultivation, as a sure and speedy sale of the produce of the earth. If we cast our eyes over
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the several kingdoms and states of Europe, we shall at one view perceive, that agriculture flourishes only in those where exportation is allowed: and what is remarkable, the price of corn is uniformly lower in such countries, than in others, where the exportation is prohibited, and famine never visits a people that are allowed to sell abroad their superfluous corn. To some politicians this appears paradoxical; but no truth in mathematics is more susceptible of demonstration.

There has lately existed, and at present exists a spirit of improvement in matters of agriculture, amongst individuals in France, which bears a countenance of great utility. At the head of these true patriots stands the Marquis de Tourbilli; the author of the *Memoire sur la Defrichemens*. This nobleman inherited a considerable extent of country in Anjou; much the greatest part of which was reputed barren: consisting of unbounded heaths, extensive marshes, a variety of wild uncultivated country; vast quantities of which did not so much as maintain a flock of sheep; and the few inhabitants, in a state of beggary and idleness. The marquis, instigated by a noble spirit of improvement, determined at least to attempt a change in his estate, considerable only for its extent. He broke up a small piece of land adjoining to his habitation, in a manner peculiar to himself in France, and cultivated it very judiciously—he continued every year the same work, until his house was surrounded by a considerable and well cultivated farm; by degrees this beneficial work proceeded further; numerous farm-houses, with all the necessary conveniencies, were built, and tracts of improved land thrown to them—vast numbers of inclosures were struck, and plantations made—his marshes were drained—his vast meadows reduced

ced to a fine state of profit—his numerous woods brought into regular cuttings—roads made at a great expence, even through mountains themselves—quarries of stone discovered, and bridges thrown over a river, and several rivulets—new vineyards planted—the breed of all kinds of cattle improved—several manufactories established—and to conclude all, the number of souls on his domaine doubled in twenty years time. A series of conduct of vast and important consequence to himself, his country, and his king.

The good resulting from such an admirable example is unbounded. It was the strongest proof imaginable, that no funds, no mortgages, nor any method of making interest of any sums of money, were equal to their employment in the improvement of uncultivated lands: The benefit of such a conduct was displayed in the most striking manner; and the near and intimate connection between *culture* and *population*, proved indisputably. The success which attended the marquis's operations—and the particular and judicious instructions he published for the use of all who had the inclination to follow his example, paved the way for many to pursue his steps. The importance of which consequence, must be self evident to every one who has any ideas of the benefits resulting from well cultivated provinces.

The celebrated M. du Hamel, and his numerous correspondents, on matters of husbandry, among whom M. de Chateauvieux may be considered as the principal, have shown a due attention to most branches of rural oeconomics: and displayed in their valuable writings, a practical knowledge of agriculture, which daily increases and becomes

becomes more general : M. du Hamel, particularly in his pieces concerning *trees and planting—granaries—and experimental agriculture*, has bestowed on the publick the valuable effects of his *practice and his study*.

A distinction should however be made between those worthy patriots, who labour to perfect the common practice—and those who are chiefly busied in introducing new ones. Until agriculture is arrived at a much higher perfection, than it is at present in France, the principal, and most important object, is to improve and advance to perfection, the methods of husbandry, of which the common people already have an idea ; because it is infinitely more probable that they will follow such examples, than others which proceed on principles of which they are ignorant : Thus the Marquis de Tourbilli's improvements, are all of a nature extremely plain and common, and the benefit resulting from them generally known and understood : The old husbandmen, or their landlords themselves, see at once the propriety of draining a marsh, or making that land produce corn, which never produced any before ; but the same people will never be brought to allow, that sowing corn in rows, instead of the common method, will answer better : a million of prejudices are here to be combated ; and when got the better of, the effect will not be an hundredth part so beneficial, as the business of breaking up uncultivated heaths, draining wet lands, and, in short, all the works of the immortal Tourbilli.

A company of patriots, particularly of Bordeaux, distinguished by their zeal, and the enlightened manner in which they followed the system of the true oeconomy, lately engaged among themselves, to try

try by all possible means to direct the views of their countrymen to agriculture; that essential but heretofore neglected art. The principal object of their immediate attention, was the vast tract of uncultivated land, containing about two hundred and forty thousand acres, which made a part of the domains of the marquisate of Certes, situated in the division of Bourdeaux. They purchased part of these lands of the proprietor, by an absolute contract of sale, with such clauses as must contribute efficaciously to the benefit of the new possessors, the utility of some provinces, and by an happy train of consequences to the common good of the state.

That which most favoured the project of these worthy citizens, was the entering into possession of the power of erecting the twentieth part of these waste lands, either into fiefs, or airier fiefs; and into the right of establishing, agreeable to the necessity of the case, manufactures, mills, presses, dove-houses, fairs, markets, &c. and to enjoy a general exemption from all fines of alienation and sale, in the first changes to which the portions of property might be subject. Besides these circumstances, the king approved and confirmed the sale of the lands by an arret of his council of state, given the 1st of June 1762. By this arret it was ordained, that the cultivators of these lands should be exempted from the tailes, and all other imposts, for forty years: and fixed at six sols only all rights of control on all sorts of sales, contracts, exchanges, partitions, &c. &c. He likewise reduced to one denier per acre (*the twelfth part of a french penny*) the rights of registry, the hundredth denier, and the half hundredth denier. He likewise granted to the bourgeois the enjoyment, during forty years, of
free

free fiefs, as to all leases among them, relative to their undertaking; and lastly, renewed to them the privileges, granted by the edict of Henry IV. 1607, to all who worked at draining marshes. Strangers, who employed themselves three years in the culture of these lands, were to become natives, and enjoy all the prerogatives of letters of naturalization. They had an entire liberty of establishing their habitations, in whatever part of France they desired, and of exercising such profession as seemed best to them, without, in any respect, losing any of their rights.

Under such favourable auspices, this rustic company were very eager in taking the last measures for beginning the execution of their useful enterprise: Useful, it might truly be called, if, as the french assert, when completed it would augment population with more than three hundred thousand people! Beyond all doubt, such a vast extent of country, might be brought to produce a prodigious quantity of various commodities. They asserted likewise, that above an hundred thousand head of cattle, might, after some years labour, be maintained by artificial grasses; and as, continued they, it is demonstrable that the number of inhabitants of a country always bears a proportion to the quantity of subsistence they find; it is not to be doubted, but population in these new broke up farms, from the plenty of land and produce, will speedily be increased, after a proper beginning. For such happy consequences we may look, when hemp, leguminous plants, woods, and fruit-trees, are properly cultivated. How many manufactories of wool and silk may be established in these at present waste lands! While the fertility of the soil when properly prepared; and the near neighbour-

bourhood of the sea, promise plentiful productions, and the quickest sale and exportation!

But to return from these ardent expectations of the favourers of the undertaking, and to proceed with the execution. Messrs. Valler de Salignac, and Chaulce de Chazelle, the first undertakers, began with a most judicious examination of the soil, in every part of their purchase, took the necessary time for making several experiments on it, and gained the best knowledge of its various natures in their power; they then published proposals to labourers, and all other workmen, that they would employ them by the year or day, as they liked best: or in case any of them liked better to hire portions of the land, they should be treated with the utmost favour. Seventeen hundred farms were established, each consisting of a tract of land, from one hundred to one hundred and fifty acres. They placed the habitation, barn, stable, garden, and orchard, in the center of each division, one half of which was converted into arable lands, and the other into pasture and wood—besides all this, the undertakers furnished the farmers with all the cattle necessary for their first works. Pursuant to the above division, the houses, barns, and stables, occupied six thousand acres: Five thousand were employed in gardens and orchards; one hundred and ten thousand in arable lands; eighty thousand in grasses; twenty thousand in woods; twelve thousand in hemp and flax; forty thousand in roads, canals, &c. &c. And lastly, three thousand for publick places, as fairs, markets, &c. &c. The whole two hundred and forty thousand acres*.

* See *Merc. de F. Aoust*, 1762. p. 107.

I have given you this publick spirited work at large, not as the only one which France afforded, but that you might have the better idea of the vigor with which such noble undertakings are carried on there. Indeed their operations in this respect, exceed those of other nations, that enjoy infinitely greater advantages.

However, let these publick spirited genius's exert themselves in whatever tracks they may, yet they all tend to one noble and immensely important end—the general encouragement of husbandry. Their writings insensibly spread a spirit of improvement, advance the knowledge of agriculture, and by the success attending them, catch the attention of the government; and occasion ideas centering there, which, but for them, would never have been awakened. Hence we see the present encouragement given by the court to the advancement of french agriculture—and from hence we may expect yet more political steps for the same great purpose: and if ever France should be so happy as to see the occupier of the lands eased of those very heavy burthens under which he lies, and become as free and independent of the *oppressions* of the great, as the nature of the constitution will admit—and, at the same time, a bounty regularly advanced by the crown, for the exportation of corn, when under properly specified prices—then shall we see the wealth—the power—the importance of France. Then shall we see what the *great* Sully and his incomparable master would have made of that *great* kingdom.

Was such a system of policy adopted in France, England would find it highly necessary, if she meant to preserve the superiority she has hitherto kept, to find new methods of encouraging agriculture,

culture, and to advance all the old ones to the highest possible point of perfection—if this was not the conduct of that nation, she would severely feel the rivalry of the french.

It is such a conduct as this, which alone can render France formidable to her jealous neighbour. The conquests which she may make on her frontiers, are to this, of paltry consequence. The marquis of Tourbilli, M. du Hamel, &c. &c. &c. ought to be considered by their countrymen, in fifty thousand times a higher light than the most conquering generals—provided they had any such. No conquest equals in value, that of a nation's barren land. The author of the *Essai sur le Commerce*, has an observation on this topic, which well deserves quoting. Il y a une tradition, qui peut-être n'est pas vraie, mais qui mérite quelque considération. On dit que lorsque Ferdinand & Isabell chassèrent les maures d'Espagne, ces malheureux demandèrent inutilement la permission d'habiter les landes de Bordeaux. Si le zèle de religion a fait rejeter des juifs & des mahometans, il doit faire recevoir des catholiques : cependant, quatre mille allemands appelés en France à grands fraix & destinés à remplir de nouvelles colonies projetées, le projet étant sans exécution, furent misérablement renvoyés dans leur país, sans qu'on s'avisât d'une autre destination pour eux. Les matériaux d'un édifice devenu odieux, étoient jugés indignes de servir à quelque chose d'utile.—— Défricher de nouvelles terres, c'est conquérir de nouveaux país, sans faire de malheureux. Les landes, de Bordeaux à Bayonne, ont vingt lieues de diametre. Le législateur qui les peupleroit, rendroit un plus grand service à l'état, que ce-

lui qui par une guerre meurtrière s'emparerait de la même quantité de terrain. Mais il n'aurait pas aux yeux du vulgaire une gloire si brillante, parce qu'elle serait acquise sans péril militaire, sans perdre aucun citoyen, & sans s'attirer la jalousie de ses voisins.



L E T T E R III.

THE extent and other natural advantages of the kingdom of France, you will doubtless allow, are not the only causes of her grandeur—they form a noble foundation for industry to erect her fabric on; but still they are nothing more than a foundation. Spain is of greater extent than France—has a finer climate, and more fertile soil, and is the best situated country in Europe—and yet what a vast difference there is in riches, populousness, and importance, between them; which difference is owing to INDUSTRY. The extreme slothfulness of the Spaniards, joined with some other circumstances, occasions their insignificance; whereas the industry of the french gives them flourishing manufactures, an extensive and highly beneficial commerce, and consequently both public and private wealth.

Until the reign of that great improver Lewis XIV. the manufactures and foreign commerce of France were very inconsiderable; but that monarch, executing very vigorously the ideas of his prime minister Colbert, soon changed the face of affairs. Numerous manufactures were established, colonies founded in the most distant regions—an East India company erected, the Newfoundland fishery prosecuted with great vigor---and the foundations laid for a flourishing sugar trade.

All these articles encreased in vigor and publick benefit, until the succession war; which involved

the king in such immense expences, and so overstrained the resources of the kingdom, that every thing ran to decay—nor were they then under the happy influence of such a minister as Colbert to protect them.

The regency of the Duke of Orleans, peace being his object, was, without his being particularly attentive to these points, very favourable to the renovation of manufactures and commerce. Both continued on the increase, until the war 1741, which proved utterly destructive to all the foreign trade of France, and extremely ruinous to her manufactures. The immense damage she received by that war, proved in the strongest manner how much her commerce had increased. The number of ships she lost in the war, the vast number of sailors she employed, and the amount of her enemies captures, were all points of the most striking proof. In that war her mercantile losses amounted to upwards of ten millions sterling.

The succeeding peace speedily renewed her commerce. At the breaking out of the late war in 1755, it was arrived at a surprizing height: the number of sailors, which her enemy made prisoners of, in so short a space of time, convinced all Europe, that her trade had fully recovered the shock of the preceding war, and had even increased in value. The ruin which followed, most certainly exceeded all former losses—a total destruction was the consequence of that war—for while it continued the trade of France was really annihilated—and her manufactures at a most wretched stagnation.

However ruinous such periods may be to the trade of France, it will, nevertheless, constantly renew itself, while she is possessed of such valuable colonies: it is the circulation occasioned by these
which

which so greatly invigorates even her european trade and her manufactures. The english rendered themselves masters of the great sources of the commerce of France, when they conquered Cape-Breton, and the sugar-islands. But that people who know so well how to conquer, know not how to negotiate; had they been governed by ministers, at the peace, who were able and determined to be guided by the true interests of the country, they would never have restored to France the sugar islands, nor yielded to her the least share of the Newfoundland-fishery. These cessions are of so genuine and sterling a value, that a vast and important commerce is the immediate consequence of their possession: and we may judge from hence, that the trade of France will again speedily be restored, since there are no changes in her commercial affairs that can prevent such a natural effect from taking place; as to the loss of Canada—I much question, whether it ought to be called a loss? In a commercial sense, I am clear, it cannot.

Having thus in general traced the progress of the french commerce at large, I shall next endeavour to lay before you a few elucidations of the most material branches of it, in particular. Of these the sugar trade claims one of the most distinguished ranks. It is no easy matter to state the value of this trade accurately; for the conquest of Martinico and Guadaloupe, by the english, gave rise to such a variety of political publications, in that kingdom, respecting their value, that it was with some difficulty I reconciled many contradictory accounts; and from much exaggeration gained some truth. The method I shall here follow, will be to lay before you some important *facts*, the best autho-

rized of any I can procure; and then give you some *observations* on them.

It is in the first place to be remarked, that, at the peace of Utrecht, France exported no sugar, having scarcely enough for her own consumption.

In 1740, France exported 80,000 hogheads, after supplying, at a moderate rate, her home consumption. The value of this export, was reputed to be 1,000,000 *l.* sterling, to employ 40000 ton of shipping, and 4000 seamen.

In 1761, the produce of Guadaloupe, at the british market, was,

Commodities.	Value.
Cocoa-nuts	£. 11497 0 0
Coffee	66261 16 3
Cassia fistula	3100 8 0
Tamarinds	17 5 0
Dry ginger	2713 17 0
Sugar	405022 4 0
Cow hides	508 4 0
Indigo	462 18 0
Cordial waters	27 0 0
Rum	775 0 0
Succades	90 19 6
Cotton	112792 10 0
<hr/>	
Total	£. 603269 3 9

In addition to this produce, the captures made by the french and spaniards, and the quantity exported to North America immediately from the island, together it may reasonably be supposed will make the whole amount to 750000 *l.*

The

The West Indian exports from Bourdeaux, from January 1750, to August 1752, were as follows :

Hogheads of sugar	100,434
Pounds of indigo	1,624,208
— coffee	11,824,454
— cacao	224,405
Annatto	251,598
Hides	7,169

The value of these articles was 2,768,628 l. It has been supposed, that the exports from this port did not amount to one half of those of the rest of the kingdom. The export of the whole *per annum*, was calculated at 2,070,471 l. all purchased by the manufactures of France, *supposing* that Bourdeaux exported a half, which is certainly above the truth.

There are some very striking observations to be made on the immense importance of this trade. The prodigious national advantage, which must evidently result from the vast number of hands employed in it, which supplies the home consumption of France, and then exports *in only a few* articles, to the amount of upwards of two millions sterling, must surely be very apparent. In 1740, before the production was at the highest pitch, 4000 seamen were employed in bringing the sugar alone from the West Indies; 6000 more, were certainly necessary to bring home the other productions, and to navigate the great number of ships employed in the general exportation from the ports of France. A vast employment must constantly be found for multitudes of artificers, in the building and fitting out such fleets of ships.

Besides the employing such a great number of people, and those of so useful professions, the value
to

to France, of an exported produce, which yields her upwards of two millions sterling, is a trade infinitely beneficial. It is a sum of a vast amount, which figures, on comparison of profit, with any trade in the universe. Nor ought we to forget the vast quantities of manufactures, which the sugar islands constantly take from their mother country. I am fully persuaded, that if we consider this important point—the value of the other exports, not above particularized*—the employment of ship builders, &c. and lastly consider how low a calculation it is to suppose the Bourdeaux export a half of the whole—we may reasonably, and without any exaggeration, value the sugar trade of France at THREE MILLIONS STERLING *per annum*, besides the amount of the home consumption †.

The next branch of the french trade I shall examine, is the Newfoundland fishery. It is necessary to consider it, as it was before the late war broke out; or, in other words, as it will be again very soon; for I am credibly informed, that they at present carry on a fishery,

* It is to be remarked, that the Bourdeaux export contains no cotton, which is so material an article in the Guadaloupe produce—nor several other particulars of great value—when this is well considered, the boundless value of the sugar islands, will appear in a yet stronger light.

† Many circumstances might be quoted to prove that even this large sum, is considerably under the truth. The importation of Great Britain in the year 1759, (a year subject to the losses of war) exclusive of Guadaloupe, amounted to upwards of 1,800,000 £. and if the North American import be added, it will exceed 2,000,000 £. Now, the produce of the French island, Hispaniola, amounts to as much as all the British islands together, and consequently the import to 2,000,000 £.

nearly as great as ever, and will even exceed their former one, as soon as their merchants at home are a little better recovered from the losses of the war, and the number of their ships are more increased.

France, before the breaking out of the late war, employed upwards of 1300 sail of ships in carrying the produce of this fishery from America to the European markets, and 12000 sailors. And in the catching and curing their fish, they employed annually 3000 boats, and 18000 men; which, added to the former number, makes the number of seamen employed by France, in this fishery, to amount to 30000.

Were these the only advantages of this fishery, they would, to every considerate person, appear boundless and immense, to a maritime power; for a trade that employs 30,000 seamen, is in that single circumstance of vast importance, if no other benefit resulted from it. If a nation is able to build, and fit out the most formidable fleet the ocean ever bore, it is of small consequence, without the addition of numerous hardy sailors, accustomed to the sea; and these can only be procured by those branches of trade, which employ great numbers of men.

It is not, however, in this respect alone, that the Newfoundland fishery is of such great benefit to France; the value of the fish, is an article of very important profit.

The French caught annually, before the late war, 2,000,000* quintals of fish; which, at 10s. a

* An author of no mean credit, computes the quantity at 5,000,000 of quintals, which makes the whole amount, near 3,500,000*l*. But as his number of shipping and men does not exceed the above, I have not followed it.

quintal, the prime cost, usually at Newfoundland, amounts to £. 1,000,000

The freight at 3 s. a quintal, 300,000

In 2,000,000 quintals of fish, there are 20,000 hogsheds of train oil, at the rate of one hogshed to every 100 quintals; these at 18 l. per ton, will amount to about 90,000

Total amount £. 1,390,000

This account includes the several sorts of fish, caught by the french at Newfoundland; and displays on the whole, in a very clear manner, that in point of value of produce, this fishery is of immense consequence. An amount of thirteen hundred thousand pounds, the gain by one article of commerce, is a point of vast importance to France.

Yet still the benefit rests not here; for the immense consumption of the manufactures of France, which this prodigious fishery occasions, is almost incredible. The vast number of useful hands employed in building, rigging, and fitting out, thirteen hundred sail of ships, besides a great number of small craft—the victualing those ships—the immense quantities of canvas, cordage, hooks, lines, twine, nets, lead, nails, spikes, edge-tools, grapplings, anchors, the infinite quantity of cooperage—all these articles are of immense importance to France, in finding constant employment for such numbers of useful hands at home. Then, in respect of the consumption of woollen manufactures, in particular, every one of the thirty thousand men employed in this fishery, it is computed, consumes near forty shillings, in that

branch of home produce; which is a point of no inconsiderable consequence.

To attempt to value these circumstances, would be vain; for they are really invaluable: The importance of a constant employment for 30,000 sailors is boundless, and beyond all idea of value; and the prodigious consumption of an infinite variety of manufactures—the vast employment of artificers render this fishery an inexhaustible mine of wealth to the french nation. I have been assured that the value of the fish, &c.—and the consumption of manufactures, are worth, to France, upwards of two millions and an half sterling, annually; and I am persuaded the calculation is under the truth.

The next branch of the french trade, which I shall lay before you, is *the African*. A commerce, supposed by many to be of but a secondary nature—and inconsiderable value; but such ideas, are very far from being true. I have already displayed the vast importance of the sugar trade, and I may here add, that it depends almost intirely on one branch of that on the coast of Africa, *viz.* the slave trade. It is well known that all the culture of the West Indian islands, is carried on by negro slaves; and that an immense number are constantly transported thither for the support of that beneficial cultivation, without which it must immediately decline, and soon be utterly ruined.

The number of slaves transported annually from the coast of Africa to America, has been pretty accurately calculated at 200,000: half of which number, the Portuguese carry to Brazil; and the other half by the remaining European nations who have settlements in America, to those settlements. This single article of European commerce, purchased entirely by European manufactures, amounts

to no less than four millions sterling, a-year, reckoning the slaves at the moderate rate of twenty pounds *per* head.

The french, in the West Indies, do not only import from their african settlement of Goree, slaves sufficient for the cultivation of their islands—and their tobacco, and indigo plantations in Louisiana; but they have an immense trade in them, by means of the island of Hispaniola being half in their possession, and half belonging to the Spaniards: For the French, on that island, furnish the Spaniards with vast numbers of negroes for all their continental settlements, making thereby a profit beyond all calculation.—Hence we find, that the african trade of France is of prodigious consequence to that kingdom, in being the total support of all their West Indian trade—and in maintaining a vastly beneficial commerce with the Spanish colonies. But it is also infinitely beneficial in many other respects.

The articles of merchandize, imported into Europe from the french settlements, on the african coast, are all of great consequence and value. Gum senegal, gold dust, ivory, wax, dying woods, drugs, &c. &c.

The gum senegal is an article of the highest importance to France; being an exceeding useful material, in many of her most capital manufactures; such particularly as silks, and other fabricks which require a glossy lustre, to recommend them to foreign nations*. And so necessary to these manufactures is this gum, that in 1751, there passed an arret of the french king's council, prohibiting any of it being exported out

* See Mr. Poffletbwayte,

of the kingdom, under the penalty of confiscation, and a fine of 300 livres.——So beneficial indeed, is the gum trade in general, that a London merchant gained above ten thousand pounds, by a single loading of gum senegal—the first cost of which cargo on the outset, did not amount to one thousand pound.

As to gold dust, a vast quantity is annually brought from the coast of Africa: it has been calculated, that the whole amounts to half a million sterling, yearly: of this lucrative branch of trade, the french possess a principal share.

Ivory is another article of very great importance, and imported into France, in greater quantities, and to far greater profit, than by any other nation; for the infinite quantity of their manufactures in ivory, little utensils and toys, is one of the most lucrative of any in the kingdom.——Wax, dying woods, and drugs, are likewise imports of great value in themselves, and the two last of vast consequence to other branches of domestic trade—particularly the dyes to their manufactures.

But the circumstance which gives such almost peculiar advantages to the african trade, is the great consumption of french manufactures it occasions. Such valuable articles of trade—so absolutely necessary, to the sugar colonies, as slaves—and so beneficial to the mother country as gum, gold dust, ivory, &c. are all purchased with the manufactures of France: and even with some manufactures which would scarcely find a market elsewhere. There is, however, scarce a branch of french manufactures, but what finds a ready sale at their settlements on the coast of Africa, besides taking off great quantities of their East India goods, to the annual profit of that company alone, of 300,000 l.

So

So highly beneficial has this commerce been formerly, that the returns in gold, and slaves, have been had for the meanest trifles imaginable; such as bits of iron, painted glass, ordinary knives, hatchets, glass beads, and the cheapest toys and trinkets. We have an account, says Mr. Postlethwayte, among the records of the old African company, that one of the first english ships, which traded to Africa in Queen Elizabeth's time, brought away 170 pounds weight of gold dust; the goods with which the same were purchased, not amounting, as valued in England, besides the charges on board, to 250 *l.* whereas the gold brought in return, at that time, amounted to above 14000 *l.* besides ivory and other things of value.

The ships employed in this trade, take in a loading of all those french manufactures, which find the readiest demand on the coast. They proceed immediately to the french settlements; an exchange is speedily effected of such lading for a cargo of slaves. With those slaves, they steer off directly to Martinico, Guadaloupe, or Hispaniola, (which latter island takes off by far the most) dispose of their slaves, and get freighted with sugar, &c. home again to France. Nor does the world afford more profitable trading voyages than these.

To enter into a particular examination of the origin and progress of the french East India company, would trespass too much on your patience at present, and take up more room than I shall afford it: but the idea of its being entirely ruined by the late war, is so far from the real fact, that some few strictures on it, are no ways unnecessary. And a slight review of its revolutions will convince us,
that

that the french East India trade, as it rose, and continued, so contrary to all expectation; so it will again prove an exception to all the ideas we can in general form of such a commerce, so frequently ruined, and so often revived.

The first rise, and succeeding misfortunes of this company, have very little connection with its present state: accident, and misfortune, put their India directors in possession of Pondichery; then a place of no consequence, being hardly a village; wretchedness, and defeats, were always, to this company, productive of great advantages—all hope was at an end, when the dutch took that town; but that event, instead of ruining the company, laid the foundations of all the succeeding trade they acquired. The dutch rendered it a complete fortification; and then restored it by treaty to the french; who being so extremely fortunate as to have their affairs in India managed with admirable prudence and integrity; vast numbers of people, of all nations and religions, flocked to Pondichery, to enjoy the valuable advantages of mild and upright government and liberty of conscience. The Sieur Martin, who at this time had the chief direction, was so good a manager, that in four or five years he so changed the place, that it was scarcely to be known. He not only compleated the fortifications on an extensive plan, and assembled a good garrison of between seven and eight hundred men, but built one hundred new houses, and laid out a regular plan for a large town, into which, by his own prudence and good management, he drew within the space of five years, more than 50 or 60,000 inhabitants: so that in the year 1710, it was become one of the most considerable places in

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the Indies, in the hands of the europeans; and if the affairs of the company in Europe, had kept pace at all with the improvements made by this gentleman in the Indies, the french company, in point of trade, might very soon have been, in some measure, upon a level with their neighbours, the english and dutch*. It is from such a series of good management, that, although the french pride themselves so much at home, on the grandeur, and absolute power of their king, and talk in so high a strain of his conquests, yet affect quite another language in the Indies; for they value themselves there, upon their justice and moderation; their having purchased the small territory which they possess, their having lived upon good terms with their neighbours, and their establishing so large a town, and acquiring so many thousand subjects, purely by the equity and mildness of their administration†.

Pondichery was certainly a place of great consequence, for before the English took it, it contained upwards of one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants. The magazines of the company, and of private persons, were both numerous and magnificent, as far as any thing of that nature can be so. They had a large and beautiful market place, six fine gates, eleven bastions, for the defence of their walls, a regular citadel, well fortified, upwards of four hundred cannon upon their works, besides a good train of field pieces, bombs, mortars, and other military stores in their

* *Mod. Univ. Hist.* vol. xi. p. 100. — *Hist. des Indes Orientales*, tom. iii. p. 217.

† *Mod. Univ. Hist.* vol. xi. p. 102.

arional *. There cannot be a place better situated for trade than Pondichery, being in the midst of the european settlements, on the coast of Coromandel; and having all the bay of Bengal open before them: So that the company's magazines were full of all the commodities and manufactures, not only of the coast of Coromandel, but of other parts of the Indies; as Bengal, Surat, and the coast of Malabar; as also of such as are imported from Persia, and the coasts of the red sea: and here likewise are their warehoules for all sorts of European commodities, which are conveniently transported from thence, as occasion requires, to the several markets in the Indies †. The staple trade, however, of the place, is esteemed to be piece goods, of which the finest are made in the neighbouring kingdom of Golconda, and the best painted here. They likewise have great quantities of silk, raw and manufactured, gold and silver brocades, perfumes, spices, and diamonds, in which they were said to have made a great progress of late, and for which, it is certain, they are very conveniently situated, as being at a small distance from the finest mines in the Indies; and by having amongst them persons as well skilled in jewels as any in the world ‡.

The possession of so valuable a place in the Indies, is of infinite consequence to the company—and scarcely inferior is that of the well known Port L'Orient, an establishment, if I may be allowed the term, the most extraordinary in the world—There is not an instance in Europe, of so complete a *construction*, for a mere trading compa-

* *Hist. des Indes Orientales*, tom. iii. p. 253.

† *Dict. de Com.* tom. ii. col. 750.

‡ *Mod. Univ. Hist.* vol. xi. p. 108.

ny; and will for ever remain a striking monument of the munificent encouragement trade has met with in France.

Port L'Orient, is a very spacious, safe, and convenient harbour, at the mouth of the river Blaver, in Brittany, capable of receiving large ships, which may safely pass to the bottom of the bay. Yet, notwithstanding those advantages, it was very little frequented by vessels of any sort, until the government bestowed it upon this company. From that time, it was the center of their commerce in France: They spent a great deal of money, in making docks and yards, and other conveniencies. But afterwards it received most noble additions, when the East and West India companies became united. The park, which is of considerable extent, encloses their ware-houses and magazines, which are prodigiously large, very conveniently disposed, thoroughly well built, strongly vaulted, and covered with blue slate: The apartments of the directors, and other officers of the company, compose all together two handsome piles of building, and are very commodious; they have likewise a spacious rope walk, a magazine of masts, and a fine arsenal. Before the magazines lie the quays, which are always kept clean and in good repair; close to them the vessels are moored, so as to take in, or deliver, their lading with all imaginable facility: and the town, port, docks, yards, and all their dependencies are covered and protected by a good citadel.—This center of all their commerce, is of vast utility to the company, not only in the immediate benefits of the structures themselves, but in keeping all her concerns directly under the eye of proper officers, in one place, where they may assist each other, in cases of

emergency, and where such measures may be taken for preventing frauds and embezzlements, as must contribute to their security in a high degree. It likewise prevents those continual difficulties, and disputes, which would otherwise arise, between the company and the king's officers, or farmers general, in respect to duties, and to the distribution of East India commodities through the kingdom; and which, from the credit, these kind of people usually have with the ministers, must turn to the company's prejudice*.

This excellent state of the company's concerns at Pondichery, and Port L'Orient, was not effected at once, but was the gradual work of a considerable period of time. It is necessary to lay before you, all the revolutions the trade underwent, while protected by the great Colbert—and 'till the union with the West India company. Under the pacific administration of Cardinal Fleury, their affairs carried a tolerable appearance, but it was a mere appearance, until Mess. Orry and Fulvy, being at the head of the finances in 1737, which they managed with surprising success, took the company's affairs under their protection. They saw plainly that large supplies were necessary to extricate them from the difficulties under which they laboured; and therefore having first made a strict enquiry into their affairs, and taking care to put them into the best order possible, they furnished them with such sums as were necessary for augmenting their commerce; so that in the short space of two years, they doubled their returns, and in three years more brought them to thrice as much as they had been. By this management their sales, at Port L'Orient, became

regular and considerable, increasing in such a manner, that the publick sale in the year 1742, produced 24,000,000 of livres, or about 1,000,000 sterling; besides which, they reserved in their magazines goods to the value of 4,000,000 of livres more; and the first ships that arrived in 1743, brought home a still more valuable cargo. At that time, they had upwards of forty very fine ships of their own, and according to their establishment sent ten or twelve every year to the Indies; that is, two to China; three to the gulph of Bengal; three or four to Pondichery, and one or two to the islands. This extraordinary change in the company's affairs, alarmed and amazed all Europe, but more especially the maritime powers, who saw with infinite concern, a company, that but a few years before, was looked upon as sunk and destroyed, now rising into as high credit as any of their own. But perhaps their concern would have been in some measure alleviated, if they had but so much as suspected that this prosperity was in a great measure artificial, and consequently much more in the power of accidents, than in all appearance it seemed to be: For all assistance from M. Orry, &c. was a profound secret*.

The succeeding war involving the ministry in great expences, M. Orry was obliged to declare to the directors of the company, that for the future, their trade must support itself. This was a vast shock, which almost at one stroke tumbled down that fine fabrick, which so lately had caused such envy. The worst consequence which attended this affair, with respect to the nation, and the company, was the letting all Europe see that this com-

* *Mod. Univ. Hist.* vol. xi, p. 134.

merce was a thing not to be carried on in France, as in other countries, by a society of private persons, incorporated by publick authority, but must be directed, upheld, and managed by ministers, or at least in subordination to them; so that, whereas in other countries, trade supports the State; in this, on the contrary, trade cannot flourish, or even subsist, but from the attention, and through the assistance of the State. As to the company, it shewed, that notwithstanding appearances, it was very far from being upon a level with other companies, though never any of them, in any country, had been so much cherished, or received such supplies from the government, which gave them being; yet, after all, this affair which made so great a noise at the time, passed over easier than could have been expected; the proprietors, after a little murmuring, submitted to what they could not help; and by the assistance of a few lotteries, pretty well extricated themselves from the difficulties brought upon them by M. Orry's declaration. Their stock after the peace, though it did not rise so high as before—rose, however, as high as could be expected; and the regularity of their sales and dividends was again restored.

The last war was carried on with so much naval spirit by the English, that the French company, after the taking of Pondichery, was in a manner annihilated. But notwithstanding their ill success, the french ministry made greater efforts in India than any where else—they constantly kept a very stout squadron of men of war in those seas, inso-much that the English admirals there, had no reason to boast of any brilliant naval success; the

† Ibid. ——— p. 141.

two nations being, in the East Indies, by far more on an equality by sea, than in any other region. The keeping so good a countenance was of great service to their affairs, notwithstanding the loss of Pondichery. And another part of their conduct, which was equally political, was the laying by in Port L'Orient, the best and chief of Indiamen, whereby they escaped any very considerable losses by sea, to which they would otherwise have been exposed; and were ready against a peace to prosecute their trade with some vigour.

Accordingly the war was nearly a suspension of the company's commerce; for on the conclusion of the peace of Fontainebleau in 1763, which restored to the french the conquests made by the English, the company, it is supposed, under the direction of the ministry, set immediately about a full renovation of their trade. Proper and judicious directors were sent over to the Indies, to re-establish order in their affairs—to restore all things to their former footing—and particularly, so to renew and improve the fortifications of Pondichery, as to put it entirely out of all fear from any future attacks. And in these important pursuits have the company been engaged, from the peace, to the last advices received from the Indies. Their ships have lately sailed with tolerable exactness, and the trade in general is on a good footing, giving many signs of once more becoming considerable.

The possession entire of the islands of Madagascar, France and Bourbon, and the spirit with which they prosecute their settlements on them, will tend most powerfully to re-establish the company's trade in full vigour. In speaking of the french East India commerce it has been very common

mon to reckon Pondichery and the Bengal trade all that is valuable in the Indies: but this has proceeded from an ignorance of the importance of these islands; and as the voluminous work, from which I have chiefly taken the preceding account of the French India company, cannot possibly be in many hands, I shall take the same freedom with it, in regard to these islands, and lay before you, in as short a compass as possible, what is most worthy of observation in them.

The island of France lies in south lat. 20. and 21. The climate is pretty warm, but very wholesome, and the air serene. The extent of it is about fifty leagues. The soil produces all the trees, fruits, and herbs, which are common in the same latitude. Groves of oranges both sweet and sour, as well as citrons, are plenty; and the pineapple grows spontaneously in very great perfection. It produces ebony of several colours, amazingly beautiful. The present defect of grain, is supplied by admirable potatoes, and a root they call manioc, of which incomparable bread is made. It abounds with plenty of black cattle, venison, wild fowl; and fish in great abundance: and it harbours no venomous insects or reptiles. It is annually visited by vessels in their way from Europe to the Indies.

As fine a spot as this island ever was—the India company considered it as a dead weight upon them; until, in 1734, M. de la Bourdennaye was sent over as governor of *the islands*. Upon his arrival in the isle of France, he found it in as miserable a condition as ever colony was; very thin of people, and those ignorant, lazy, and seditious, as if they had not been, as they really were, naked, defenceless and starving. This gentleman went to work with all the vigor and publick spirit imaginable;

ginable; and at the expence of making every man under his command his secret enemy, though they all profess that he was the wisest, gentlest, and best of governors, he soon put all things to rights, and brought the greatest part of them to believe that he really was; what, out of servile flattery, they called him.

He sent for young negroes over from Madagascar, bred them up in honest and religious principles, and then made use of them against some outlaws and banditti, that were in the island, whom he obliged either to submit, or quit it. He found in the island scarce a planter, manufacturer, or soldier; he made every able man that resided there, all of these, by shewing him that it was his interest, and placing the essence of his own power in his example. When he came there was nothing but cabins; in the space of a few years, besides private habitations, he erected magazines, arsenals, barracks, fortifications, mills, quays, canals, and aqueducts, particularly one that carried fresh water down to the port, and to the hospitals, three thousand six hundred toises in length, which effectually removed the most troublesome circumstance that hitherto had impeded their thriving. They had never been skillful enough to clear or repair the smallest vessel for their own service, but were forced to lay them up when foul or decayed till some ship came in, when they could hire the carpenters to do what they wanted. They had not either roads, carriages, or sawing mills; the governor enabled them to get the better of these wants, and in eighteen or twenty months, brought down a large quantity of serviceable timber to the port; where he provided yards, wet and dry docks, pontons, canyas, thallops, and whatever else was necessary for careening, which he performed

formed, as effectually as, in Europe. In 1737 he launched a brigantine; in 1738 he built two good ships, and towards the close of the year, put one upon the stocks, of the burden of 500 tons. In a word, in four years time, the port of the isle of France was as fit for building, or careening, as L'Orient, the business as effectually done, and with more expedition.

All these services could never have been brought about, if he had not attended, at the same time, to the personal interests, and private advantages of every planter in the island. A few instances will suffice to set this important affair in a clear light. In the first place, he prevented their ever being distressed for food, that is, for bread, which had often happened before, and was the principal cause of their poverty. He did this, by obliging them to plant 500 feet square of manioc, for every black man and their families. At first they were very averse, and some were so wicked as to destroy these plantations, after they were made; but by degrees becoming more accustomed to this diet, they acquired sagacity enough to perceive that brown bread was better than none. He next prevented their slaughtering cattle at random, obliged the crews of the company's ships to be satisfied during their stay, with fish and turtle, when it was absolutely requisite; and, by this temporary short allowance, secured to them perpetual plenty. He put them upon raising commodities and manufactures, of which they never thought; and, amongst the rest, he set on foot sugar works, for the profit of the company, which brought in, when he left the island, sixty thousand livres a year.—As to himself, his disinterestedness equalled his abilities; for he never possessed a foot of land, nor traded for a single livre.

All

All these strange things were performed between 1735 and 1740, and certainly contain the most striking instance of the vast power of industry, and perseverance, that is to be met with in the annals of history: So very remarkable is it, and so fine a lesson does it contain for future settlers in any part of the world, that I could not deny myself the pleasure of laying this sketch before you.

Nothing could be more important than M. de Bourdennaye's happy thought of cultivating commodities of great value, as well in the Indies, as in Europe. The sugar that is raised here, has a constant and regular vent at Surat, as, on the other hand, cotton and indigo, likewise cultivated by him, are staple commodities for the homeward bound ships. In consequence therefore of these improvements, the people of the island are enabled to purchase, in a great measure, all they want, either from homeward or outward bound ships; and in time perhaps, as the island becomes more populous, and consequently more flourishing, they may be encouraged to undertake discoveries in those unknown southern countries, which beyond all doubt fixes for ever the maritime power of that nation, which has courage enough to form settlements in them, as this island is at least as well, if not better situated for that purpose, than any other spot upon the globe.

The island of Bourbon, lies in the lat. 21 degrees, at a small distance from that of France. It is about fifty seven leagues in circumference. The air is very pleasant, and wonderfully wholesome, in so much that people live there to a vast age, without feeling either infirmities or diseases. This remarkable salubrity, it is supposed, is owing to their hurricanes, a kind of storm well known, which generally visits them once or twice a-year: but the

the inhabitants, by many sure prognosticks, are enabled fully to secure themselves. The soil is excessively fruitful, producing turkey corn, and rice, twice a-year; the latter in vast abundance. Cattle, fish, and fruits, plentiful; and the latter in great perfection: It produces some valuable commodities, such as ebony, cotton, white pepper, gum benjamin, aloes and tobacco; all excellent in their kind: Besides some plantations of sugar—and several years ago, the company annually brought from thence, coffee to the amount of one hundred thousand pounds.

The very situation of these islands render them of vast consequence to the french company; for the success of their East India commerce, must depend upon their remaining in a prosperous and thriving condition. Neither is it at all impossible, that by degrees they may open a commerce to all parts of the Indies, directly from these islands, which are certainly as well situated for that purpose, as can be wished, as by a proper attention to the seasons, voyages may be made with great facility and safety, from them to the Persian and Arabian gulph, and even to the straits of Sonda, and China, without the necessity of touching at any port in the Indies, and returns might be made thither in the like manner*.

Those valuable productions above specified, particularly sugar, coffee, and rice, have been lately cultivated in these islands with unusual spirit. It may be reasonably conjectured, that the french company finding them in the late war their only resource, prosecuted their settlement with unusual diligence; infomuch, that at present they are

* *Mod. Univo. Hist.* vol. xi. p. 170.

esteemed

esteemed in France, the most important colonies belonging to the India company, not excepting Pondichery itself. And the exports of the three articles, above specified, have become so considerable, that I am very much surprized their vast importance is not more generally known. They will beyond all doubt be the readiest and most effectual means of speedily restoring the French East India company to all, and more than all, its former glory, and enable it to rest on more stable foundations than we have seen it hitherto has done.

Thus much it is necessary I should lay before you, concerning the particulars of the French East India trade—as to the commerce in general, there is no doubt but it is of great importance to France, since she would infallibly purchase the produce of it from her neighbours, if she did not bring it home herself—and such long voyages, with large ships, training up a considerable number of most valuable seamen, render them in that respect of great importance to a people that would be maritime. Add to this, that notwithstanding the balance is here, as with all nations that trade to India, against them—yet no inconsiderable quantity of French manufactures is exported—and when the islands of France, and Bourbon, come to be fully settled, which they speedily will, this article will be of the utmost consequence.

The vast trade which the French have of late years carried on to the Levant, is one of the most lucrative that can be imagined, as it takes off an infinite quantity of their manufactures. It is also almost singularly beneficial, in being entirely won from the English. A commercial weight taken from their scale, and thrown into that of France, is from that circumstance of double value. The
port

port of Marseilles, is so finely situated for the mediterranean trade, that when the necessary manufactures were established, it was almost impossible for any other nation to rival France in this trade; and that famous sea port, and her neighbouring provinces abound with all kinds of manufactures, and assortments, proper for the Levant trade, and from the admirable situation, are enabled to carry them to market, much cheaper than any other people. This most lucrative and beneficial commerce, employs an immense number of ships and seamen, and takes off a prodigious quantity of the manufactures of France. It is almost incredible what a loss that of this trade is reckoned in England, and how much the success of the French in it is regretted there*.

The trade which the French carry on with Spain, is likewise very extensive, and highly beneficial—and has been for some years, and is at

* The French have for some years past obtained the secret from Spain, of making Castile Soap, as it is called, and have set up very large manufactures thereof, both at Marseilles and Toulon, and have thereby beat the Spaniards out of that valuable branch of trade. Nor is this the only benefit which France receives by this manufacture; for as one of the chief ingredients of making this soap, is Levantine olive oil, together with the ingredients of sosa and barilla, their large vent for their soap, gives them the advantage of constant back freights from the Levant, with these oils; which, it seems, has proved one great, if not the only means of the French advancing their Turkey trade, upon the ruins of ours; for, we having no such manufacture of Castile soap, that will consume such quantities of Levant oil as the French, we can neither trade with the Turks, so much to their advantage, as the French do, nor so much to our own, as if our Turkey traders had the like benefit by constant back freights." *Mod. Univ. Hist.* vol. xliii. p. 392.

present, greatly on the encrease, to the prejudice of that of the English. We may easily conceive how lucrative this branch is, from several circumstances: 1st, The high value it was always estimated at in England. 2d, They fetch away the raw materials of Spain for their own manufactures; as the raw silk of Valencia, Granada, Murcia, &c. the wool of Castile, Arragon, Navarre, Leon, &c. both which articles they purchase with French manufactures, and work into goods, which they sell again to the Spaniards. Besides these articles, they export to Cadiz, vast quantities of all their manufactures, to be shipped for Mexico and Peru, the returns for which they receive chiefly in money.

As to the trade of France to the north, it was formerly extremely beneficial, but has not of late, since her demand for naval stores has encreased so greatly, flourished as before, the balance being against them.

The next branch of trade, of which I shall make particular mention is, that to the colony of Louisiana. I speak not of it as arrived at any full perfection, but rather as an opening to a commerce infinitely beneficial, and of vast extent. This colony produces, at present, no inconsiderable quantity of cotton, indigo, and rice, all highly valuable articles, and the soil and climate so extremely suitable to them, that their great increase is not to be doubted of. Since the peace, the French have been very busy in forwarding the growth of this settlement—in navigating the Mississippi, and forming an extensive intercourse with the numerous nations of Indians, on its banks, and those of various great rivers which fall, on their side, into it. These measures have opened the door of a no inconsiderable demand for French manufactures, which

which will doubtless increase by good management daily.

The home trade of France, which well deserves our regard, is the coasting trade by sea, in order to bring the product of the south parts of France to those of the north, for the supply of the great city of Paris, and of all the northern provinces: and this, indeed, is a very considerable, as well as material part of their trade; next to the coal trade of England, is perhaps the greatest article of its kind in Europe, and employs more ships, and more people. The principal ports for this commerce, are the cities of Bourdeaux, and Rouen; but many other places share in the trade by the way, both in the out loading, and in the returns. The first ships are loaded at Bourdeaux with wines, fruits of all sorts, and all other products of the southern provinces; and there setting out in a fleet, and under convoy in time of war, stop at St. Martins, and the isle of Rhee. Here they are joined by the ships from Rochelle, laden also with wines, and fruits of all kinds, as well as with corn, which the adjacent country supplies. Hence they proceed to the coast of Brittany, and anchoring at Belleisle, are joined by another fleet from Nantes, Sherrant, and St. Malo, laden with white wines, brandy and corn; though generally the ships from Nantes, &c. take care to be ready for the convoy, and to be at Belleisle before them. The fleet thus gathered, sometimes even during a war, make up from 150 to 200 sail, and they proceed to the mouth of the Seine. The ships designed for the trade of Paris, put in at Havre, and, taking the opportunity of winds and tides, make the best of their way up to Rouen, while the rest separate for their respective ports, as Caen, Dieppe, St. Valery,

Valery, Bologne, Calais, Dunkirk, &c. these are the chief ports where they unload. The gross of their loading is delivered in this manner, and from these places, the wines are dispersed over all the northern provinces of France, and the Netherlands; for Dunkirk being a free port, all the merchandizes destined for Flanders, on board these coasting vessels, are dispersed from Dunkirk by the canals, and rivers, with which that country abounds. Nor is this coasting trade only thus considerable in one fleet, but it is passing and re-passing all the year, especially in the autumn after the vintage*.

As to the variety of French manufactures which supply all these various branches of extensive commerce; they are very considerable, both in their value, and the number of people they employ. It would be no easy matter, to present you with a complete description of them; but a slight idea is better than none: The city of Tours has abounded so much in the silk manufacture, as alone to have had 8000 looms, and 800 mills constantly employed. In Lyons there once were 18,000 looms, but the persecutions of the protestants greatly reduced them. The woollen cloths of Abeville, are not inferior to the English; and of all the manufactures of France, this gave the most severe blow to those of England. Abeville is also noted for its manufactures of soap, sail-cloth, and linen. Auvergne, for fine thread, lace, and stuffs; and for paper, accounted the finest in Europe. Nismes, for fine serges, and stuffs. Cambray, for

* Of that trade, which in time will prove the greatest, I speak not particularly—It is at present in its infancy—but I am much mistaken if it will long continue so—I mean the EXPORTATION OF CORN.

cambricks;

cambricks; and St. Quentin, for lawns. In Picardy, are the finest glass manufactures. In other parts are fine manufactures, of gold and silver stuffs, embroideries, sewing silk, sattins, crapes, laces, toys, millenary wares, tapestries, plush, hats, parchment, hard ware, pot-ash, pitch, oils of olives, turpentine, lintseed and almonds, brandy, raisins, &c. &c.

A particular view of these, and a vast many other manufactures, would be highly worthy the publick notice; but there is no description of them, on any good authority, to be had: It would be a very curious part of knowledge, to be informed precisely of the number of hands employed in all of them, with the respective amount of the value of each; but through negligence, neither the French ministry, nor the intendants themselves, know scarce any thing of the matter, which ignorance has appeared more than once. I may, however, from no inconsiderable authority assert, that before the late war, they were very considerable—though not equal in many branches to what they were in Lewis XIV's time: The late war ruined (for the time) many of them; and greatly distressed all: But many are again in a thriving way, and if the peace should (unexpectedly) be of any material duration, they will all doubtless regain their former flourishing condition.

There is no doubt but the present ministry in France, (and any future ones) will, as long as the peace lasts, give all possible encouragement to the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom: It is such a conduct which can alone restore a nation so exhausted, as France frequently has been—and this conduct will doubtless again be attended with the same effects, *as her enemy has left*

ber in possession, of such immensely beneficial colonies.
 Whether such a restoration of trade, will itself be
 attended with those effects, the sensible part of the
 nation wishes for, is a point on which I offered a
 few conjectures in my first letter.



L E T T E R IV.

THE great and material point of enquiry concerning every country, is *the Revenues*. We are apt too often to absorb all consideration in this alone—and too frequently imagine, that every circumstance attending a nation, is of great or trifling value, only in proportion as it advances the revenue of the state. But, without falling into this almost universal infatuation, you will doubtless agree with me in asserting that the revenue of a kingdom, is a point of very considerable importance, and highly deserving all endeavours to become well acquainted with it. A clear knowledge of the income of the government, and the resources which have been made use of on extraordinary occasions, will discover many points of valuable political knowledge, and throw a great light on the universal concerns of any people.

The revenue of scarce any kingdom in Europe, has been more magnified, and diminished, by political writers, than that of France: Some have rated it incomparably higher than the truth—while others have been as sedulous in lowering it as much beneath the reality; however, notwithstanding the variety of opinions, it will not be a difficult task to state it pretty near the truth; and in this I shall follow the best authorities I can meet with, my principal guide being the author of the *State of France*. I shall lay before you, in the first place, the several articles of the revenue, with

some remarks on the tendency and consequences of each, to the welfare of the people in general.

The greatest branch is the

I. GENERAL FARMS.

These farms are the chief of what the farmers of the revenue hire of the crown, and consist of the aids—gabells—customs—stamps—entries—fundry duties—and confiscations.

1. The aids, are duties on the retail of wines, brandies, and other liquors.

These articles form so great a part of the internal circulation of the kingdom, that the revenue, in its present state, could not be kept up without the aids: but it is ever worthy of remark, that a tax had much better be laid on the land itself, than on the land's productions, as the consumer always pays an advance for the tax, beyond the amount of the tax itself. However the aids are more tolerable to the people than some other taxes.

2. The gabells. These are the sums arising from the sale of salt made by the farmers, or bought by them at a low price on the sea coasts, and which they afterwards sell at eleven sols the pound throughout the kingdom, except in the conquered countries, where salt is a free trade.

This monopoly, from the universality of the use of salt—and the necessity of it to the poor, is very burthensome to the kingdom: There is not in nature more pernicious methods of raising publick money, than by this of monopoly—none that is

felt heavier by the poor, nor more discouraging to industry.

3. The customs, are duties laid on all kinds of merchandize, either brought in or carried out of the kingdom; and also on the import and export from and to the provinces—which all together form a species of imposition not so politically devised, as one would expect from the attention the French have given to commerce. The duties on exportation are too heavy; but they begin to have better ideas of this part of domestic œconomy; for lately the exportation of corn, duty free, has been allowed, and it is expected that this indulgence will be extended to some other articles of consequence.

4. The stamps, on paper and parchment, are so lucrative, that the farmers sell the material for eight-ninths more than the real value. The stamps on gold and silver, are fixed before goldsmiths and others are to expose their goods to sale. The stamps on iron, and other metals, are a duty on every hundred weight, before it comes out of the forge: It likewise includes all manufactories for looking-glass, earthen ware, porcelains, and all glass houses. The stamp on leathers, is a duty on every hundred weight, before it is sent from the tanners.

5. The entries, are duties settled at Paris, and all the great cities in the kingdom, called free cities, from not paying the tax, and being exempted from furnishing a militia. They are collected at the city gates, for all cattle, wild fowl, game, fresh and salted fish, barley, oats, and small grain, pulse, pease, beans, lentils, &c. butter, cheese,

eggs, fruits, strong liquors, French and foreign wines, beer, cyder, fire wood, and wood for manufactures, and in general, on all merchandize and goods, not subject to the payment of custom.

It certainly will bear a question, Whether a tax on those who chuse to live in cities, in preference to the country, be a burthen on the people at large? I should be inclined to think it advantageous, if only the inhabitant of cities paid it—but the misfortune is, this tax which appears to be paid by the citizen, is most undoubtedly, in a great measure, borne by the husbandmen; for all taxes or incumbrances, on the sale of the land's productions, must fall heavy on the occupier, as the consumption is cramped and lessened.

6. Sundry duties. These consist of, 1. *The duties on manufactures.* Every piece of silken, or woollen stuff, wrought in any of the manufactories of the kingdom; as also every pair of stockings of silk, worsted, thread, and cotton, are, before they are carried out of such manufactory, to pay a certain tax or duty, after which a piece of lead is fastened to them, marked with a flower de luce.—2. *Duties on wild fowl and game, and on fresh and salted fish.* Over and above the entries paid by these commodities, they are liable to another duty, on being brought into market, before they can be sold. 3. *Duties on tallow, oils, and soap.* The duties upon this farm, are collected upon every barrel of oil sold in the kingdom; on every hundred weight of candles issued from the manufactories, and on every hundred weight of soap exposed to sale.

These several duties are a very heavy weight on the French manufactures; which, were it not for them, would be exported much cheaper to foreign

foreign countries: nevertheless, weighty as they are, the goods are sold in many parts of the world cheaper than the same can be afforded by some other nations.

7. Confiscations. All frauds and fraudulent traffic are liable to heavy fines, and all the goods confiscated—All foreign merchandize not allowed to be sold in the kingdom, is confiscated. Likewise all kinds of internal trade, contrary to the letter of the law—and all omissions of paying duties, &c. all these articles, &c. forfeit severely to the farmers general.

II. TOBACCO FARM.

The farmers of the revenue buy up tobacco in foreign countries, at a very small price, manufacture it themselves, and afterwards sell it all over the kingdom, at 54 sols *per* pound, excepting only in the conquered countries, where tobacco is a free trade; and in some other provinces, where they sell it for no more than 24, 30, or 36 sols the pound, according to their distance from the frontiers. This monopoly is but a trifling burthen to the people; and as easy a method as any of raising money; but all monopolies are destructive of trade in general.

III. The Post FARM.

This revenue, besides the postage of letters, includes that of pacquets, and a duty of one sol *per* pound, for all remittances of cash from one province to another, and one town to another—besides a tax on post horses. The duty on remittances raising any sums is a strong proof

proof that the trade of the kingdom, is on a very wrong footing—this is occasioned by the want of paper currency. What a ridiculous figure would such remittances make in England or Holland! What a contemptible sum would such a tax raise!

IV. The FARM of CARRIAGES and TOLLS.

The carriages, include all sorts of publick ones travelling by land, and even by water. The tolls are a duty of 10, 15 or 20 sols, more or less, for every hundred weight of goods crossing over certain rivers and canals.

V. LAND TAX.

This is divided into several branches, viz.
 1. The *taille*, or tax, on the *païs d'élection* (or those provinces without parliaments) is an arbitrary tax imposed on the inhabitants of the twenty provinces of the *païs d'élection*, excepting *the clergy, the noblesse, the officers of the king's household, the princes and princesses of the blood, the officers of the army, and marine, and those who are possessed of posts and offices.* This tax is imposed yearly by the king, and assessed upon each province, according to its ability of payment; the intendant lays the assessment, first on each election, then on each parish, and at length it is charged on each inhabitant, according to his means, by the deputies of the intendants, on each election, and the elders of each parish, in presence of the judges of the place, and the *syndic*.

One of the most oppressive and unequal taxes the wit of man could devise! All those of the whole

whole kingdom, who are alone able to bear it, are excepted from it: while prejudice, partiality, and picque, guide all the assessments, which are as arbitrary as any Turkish imposition, and liable to no appeal. It is this villainous tax, which will for ever keep down the husbandry of France. Encouragements of various kinds may be given to agriculture, and be attended with great consequence, but never can set it on that independant and secure basis, which a fair equality of taxes would effect in a moment. This tax, it is said, is laid on every one *according to his means*, but that is a meer expression, without a reality, for intrigue, and a million of other causes warp it from the original intention: and under the notion of taxing every one according to his ability, all improvements in husbandry are severely taxed.—No sooner does a farmer improve a piece of indifferent land and gain good crops—no sooner does he increase or improve his breed of cattle, or, in a word, give any sign of the least *ability*, however it is expended in the proportion of culture and industry, than whip comes the intendant's myrmidons, and rate him up for such circumstances—and with this dreadful addition, that such a little *shew* of wealth is ever taken as a proof that more is concealed, which would appear, were it not for a fear of being taxed, and therefore they are extremely careful not to under assess the matter. It must be apparent to the least attentive observer, what terrible consequences must flow from such an oppressive tax, so partially levied on, I may say, the husbandry of the kingdom.

The gross amount of the taxes levied on a nation, is not of that determinate consequence some may imagine. If politicians suppose that the kingdom of
France

France is very able to yield a revenue of ten millions sterling; it is not from hence to be concluded, that even eight millions are easily raised: A less sum may come into the royal treasury, almost to the ruin of the kingdom: For the nature of the taxes, and the method of collecting them are to be considered; which are beyond all so frequently pernicious, that the *manner* of raising four millions, may be more burthensome to the people at large, than the whole amount of the four millions separately considered—or, in a word, that nine millions had better be raised in the most beneficial and equal manner, than four on any other plan. All that can be said on this subject is applicable to the *taille*.

The second part of the land-tax, is that on the *païs d'état*.——In Languedoc, Burgundy, Brittany, and Provence, which are the four provinces of the *païs d'état*, the tax is laid in each parish, on the lands held in *focage*: The gentry, the clergy, and swordsmen, pay according to the value of the lands they are in actual possession of; the merchants, artificers and tradesmen, are taxed according to their stations. But the porters, day-labourers, and poor, are not included in this tax, as they are in the *païs d'élection*.

The third part of the land tax, is the subsidy of the annexed and conquered countries.

It is imposed in the same manner as in the *païs d'état*. The annexed countries are, the three bishopricks, and the dutchies of Lorraine and Barr. The conquered ones, Flanders, Haynault, Alsace, Franche Comté, and Roussillon.

VI. The CAPITATION.

This tax on the *païs d'élection*, the *païs d'état*, and the annexed and conquered provinces, is laid on every individual without exception. Every one pays it, from the Dauphin of France, to the men and maid servants, and water-carriers. It is laid according to the quality of each person, whether in estates, trade, posts, employ, arts, calling or labour; the military are likewise subject to this tax, down to the lowest soldier, who pay every year 22 sols, but their commanding officer generally makes them a present of it, by not deducting it from their pay. The clergy, and the officers of judicature, are assessed in common with every one else.

The capitation is laid on the town of Paris—Pensions—King and Queen's household—troops of the King's household—Princes, Dukes, &c. &c.—war, marine and gallies—clergy—courts of justice—places and offices—fundry other capitations—

VII. General tenths of the CLERGY.

This tax is laid on all kinds of church revenues: none exempted from it, but the mendicant friars.

VIII. Free gifts of the CLERGY.

A present to the king by the clergy of France, in their great assemblies, which are held every ten years.

IX. Free gift of the païs d'etat.

A present made to the king, by the provinces of the païs d'etat, for the preservation of their privileges, which is regulated every two years by the assemblies or sessions of the states. It is laid on all the inhabitants in general.

X. Produce of the COLONIES.

An impost laid on all the inhabitants of the colonies or French islands of the West Indies, the duties on goods carried from thence by foreigners, and on foreign goods brought thither.

XI. TENTH PENNY.

A tenth of the income of all estates in the kingdom, without exception—has not been levied lately.

XII. Ditto ON PENSIONS, &c.

XIII. COINAGE of MONEY.

XIV. Demefns, Waters and Forests.

Consist of the land estates belonging to the king
~~quit rents~~ ~~finer~~ ~~escheatages~~ ~~quint~~
 and

and requint, or a tax of a fifth, and the fifth of a fifth, on the sale of all land—first fruits on purchases of manors—vacancies of church preferments—King's timber, with several other more trifling articles.

1. The Crown
2. The Lord's
3. The Bishop's
4. The Church's
5. The University's
6. The College's
7. The Clergy's
8. The Nobility's
9. The Gentry's
10. The Peasants's
11. The Towns's
12. The University of Oxford
13. The University of Cambridge
14. The University of London

GENERAL SPECIFICATION.

1. General farms	-	-	-	-
2. Tobacco farm	-	-	-	-
3. Post farm	-	-	-	-
4. Carriage farm	-	-	-	-
5. Land tax	-	-	-	-
6. The Capitation	-	-	-	-
7. General tenths of the Clergy	-	-	-	-
8. Free gifts of the Clergy	-	-	-	-
9. Free gifts of the païs d'état	-	-	-	-
10. Produce of the Colonies	-	-	-	-
11. Tenth penny	-	-	-	-
12. Ditto on pensions, &c.	-	-	-	-
13. Coinage of money	-	-	-	-
14. Demefns, &c.	-	-	-	-

1739.	1740.	1741 *	1742 †.
£.	£.	£.	£.
3561250	3727450	3631250	3727500
437500	481250	481250	481250
175000	183750	105000	183750
96250	100625	113750	105000
<u>2226375</u>	<u>2226375</u>	<u>2314375</u>	<u>2314375</u>
1493912	1526432	1319597	1351875
<u>350000</u>	<u>371875</u>	<u>371875</u>	<u>356650</u>
91875	96250	100000	91875
181824	201250	236250	275625
100625	70000	64093	66151
		484111 ‡	1609582
93625	96250	105437	105771
100625	61250	74375	78750
205365	160625	123156	168000
<u>9,114,229</u>	<u>9,303,382</u>	<u>9,524,539</u>	<u>10,916,154</u>

* The debt of France encreased this year £. 1,050,000

† Ditto (part of it at 10½ per cent.) 1,382,500

These sums were borrowed; besides the above revenue.

‡ Only for three months.

H

Propor.

Proportion of the LAND TAX.

1741 and 1742.

On the païs d'élection	£. 1,579,375
On the païs d'état	306,250
On the annexed and conquer'd coun- tries	428,750
	<hr/>
	2,314,375
	<hr/>

In these years the capitation on the annexed and conquered countries, amounted to £. 188,125

When the tenth penny raises two millions on the whole kingdom, the annexed and conquered provinces, pay £. 400,000 or a fifth.

The same proportion nearly holds between them as above.

The proportion of the capitations cannot be gained, as they include so many different sets of officers.

According to M. de Mirabeau, the revenue of France is as follows:

Imposts not farmed.

Tailles	-	1,888,167
Winter quarters	-	396,991
Particular impositions	-	137,196
Capitations	-	1,102,150

Gratu-

Gratuitous gifts	-	551,418
Capitation on the païs d'etat		434,308
		<hr/> £. 4,510,230

General and particular farms.

General farms	-	£. 4,812,500
Farms of Poissy		21,875
Ditto of Lorrain		145,862
		<hr/> 167,737

The marks on leather	-	51,012
To which we must add, as territorial, in appanages or exchanges		43,750
		<hr/> 9,585,229

In this table of the ordinary revenues of France (says M. de M.) no mention is made of the revenues of the crown, and others, as the domains alienated, the woods, posts, monies, and casual articles.

I should remark to you here, that by much the greatest part of this revenue, consists of the general farms—the land tax, and the capitation; and that the lower ranks of the people, bear by far the heaviest of these burthens; for the greatest part of the land tax lies entirely on them: several articles of the farms bear prodigiously heavy on them—and the capitation is dreadfully unequal. The tenth penny likewise, when it is raised, falls the heaviest upon the poor. You will also doubtless observe, that of sundry other articles, they must bear a no inconsiderable share.

From this general inequality, results the wretchedness of the lower people of France; and the reason why the revenue is not as large as some have asserted it to be. For it is beyond a doubt that the kingdom *might* pay fifteen millions with as much ease as the preceeding ten, were all the taxes levied entirely equally, and the method of farming them changed for an excise: It must never be imagined that such nine or ten millions, which really flow into the treasury, is really the whole raised on the people; the farmers general take care that that shall never be the case, for all the surplus, after their leases are fulfilled, is their own; and that this is immense, the prodigious fortunes they every day make, is the most irrefragable proof. It should not therefore be supposed, that on a change of system, and raising the revenue to fifteen millions, the people would feel the weight of an additional five millions—very far from it. Some French writers, of no inconsiderable authority, have even asserted the charges of collecting, and the profits of the farmers, to amount to as much as the revenue; but this must be somewhat exaggerated—however the real additional burthen to the people on such a change, would be very trifling; and if we consider the vast benefits resulting from the taxes being equally paid, it will perhaps appear scarce any thing: with this benefit, that the *husbandmen* and *lower manufacturers* would then, with a publick revenue of fifteen millions, be far better off than lately with one of ten.

Nine millions of people in Great Britain, pay an amount of taxes, as great as sixteen millions and a half in France. It is true, the trade of the latter kingdom is not so great as that of the former,

mer, but nevertheless it is very considerable; and half as many again of inhabitants, most certainly more than renders that point equal. Examine the different appearance of the two people; and how infinitely more happy is the Englishman than his French neighbour, in points where I might almost say liberty had nothing to do: But without stretching the assertion so far as that, there is beyond a doubt an infinite difference in the burden of taxes laid on the husbandman and manufacturer in the two kingdoms, which causes a prodigious difference in their property, and necessarily in the general riches of the States; for it is the lower people having a good share of the general wealth, which constitutes its greatest value—not the precise amount of the whole, when compared with that of other nations. There is an infinite difference in publick benefit, between forty rich farmers of the soil—and forty rich farmers of the revenue.—I am very sensible of many points of advantage which Great Britain has over France; but I am likewise satisfied that if the former kingdom constantly yields a larger revenue than the latter, with scarce a man that displays the weight of it—while all the poor in France are ground with a less burthen—that there must be an infinite difference in the taxes themselves, and the method of collecting them—and if we do not recur to these points for a solution of the difficulty, I am certain it can be had no where.

M. de Mirabeau makes the expences of the collecting the taxes very great; the following is his calculation of the sums actually *paid* by the people.

It has been found that the revenue of the kingdom, being about 17,500,000 *l.* have raised more than 26,250,000 *l.* that is 8,750,000 *l.* of ordinary imposts, which comprehends the farms and other different articles, yielding double, and often treble, the price of the leases; torn away in exactions, in the profits of the farmers, and in the expences of a costly management, to more than double the reality; in all - *£.* 19,687,500

The augmentation of the imposts by aids, in times of necessity, which comprehends the twentieths, the double imposts, the grants, the taxations, and exactions of every specie, amounting to more than 6,562,500

Total 26,250,000

—Our finances, says he, are confided to men that are ever animated by a vile interest.

Our sur-intendants look more to their own fortunes, than those of the state.

Fouquet appropriated to his own profit more than 2,100,000 *l.*

The disgrace of that minister, followed by his chastisement, has done nothing since for the disorder of our finances. The monarchy has always its Fouquets. The evil is in the thing itself. Instead of a single subject, we have a small number united together for disposing of us according to their will; we can therefore never have any order

der in our finances. Mankind are not changed; they are the same now as heretofore: personal interest always in them gets the better of all other considerations. All that morals can do, is to make them disguise this vice to themselves. The probity of the age is neither here nor there. The minister of integrity, at present, is he who knows not that he ruins others in enriching himself.

All the great fortunes that exist at present in the kingdom, come from those that have had some share in the management of the finances: that is to say, this form of administration furnishes itself the means for a small number of individuals to ruin the State. They become insensibly the possessors, for their place gives them a title to such acquisitions.

How is it possible to establish order among those who have a personal interest in perpetuating disorder?

The successors of our sur-intendants have turned to their profit very considerable sums, and with them a part of the power and authority of government. The king is no longer master of his will; those, who by this form of administration have secured to themselves his riches, hold a check upon his power. As they have the means in their hands of his defending his rights, these men find themselves necessarily connected with the greatest affairs of the state; and that comes to pass, which in respect of our constitution, changes the order of things, and overturns the system of the monarchy.

At present the finances have but one motion. The farmers plunder the people, and in transfer-

ing a part to the treasury, provide but little for the king, and leave nothing to the people. Such in two words, is the present system of the finances.

If we search into the pockets of the farmers, and all those who have any connection with the general farms, we shall find, at least, the sum of 13,125,000 *l.* always existing in their coffers*.

The following years, until the peace in 1748, the revenue increased considerably, at the same time that the ability of the nation diminished. — This was an infinite hardship to the people — and could only be exceeded by finding their burthens continued longer than the war — this was, however, in some measure necessary to re-establish the finances; and to enable the ministry to prosecute their great scheme of their navy's renovation. From that time, to the breaking out of the late war, the revenue was pretty equal, and the sums raised on the people far from being excessive; a conduct very political, and which gave much encouragement to their recruiting. During the late war, vast sums were raised, and at the beginning of it borrowed; but that practice was nearly destroyed by the bankruptcy which succeeded — the latter years of the war

* A late author gives the following detail of the whole of what is paid by the people.

	<i>£.</i>
Ordinary revenue	12,546,666
Extraordinary ditto 1748	2,326,133
Ditto in the last war	3,052,923
Expence of raising	2,557, 33
Water works, &c. Cyr, cloathing militia, &c.	1,213,331
Expences of the courts of law	1,200,000
Church and poor	1,844,444
	<hr/>
	<i>£.</i> 24,740,834

the people were entirely exhausted, and the royal revenue fell short so greatly, that the ministry were infinitely involved in difficulties to carry on even a tolerable face of power, and which, at last, was effected partly, by running in debt to every mortal to whom immediate payment was not absolutely necessary. Since the peace, the former plan of letting the people recruit, by easing them of some of the most burthenome taxes, has taken place, and will doubtless have great effects.

I shall now lay before you a table of the king's expences.

GENERAL SPECIFICATION.

Expences of the Court.

1. The king and queen's household
2. King's privy purse
3. Queen's ditto
4. Dauphin's ditto
5. King's offerings and alms
6. The king's stables and studs
7. Venery, falconry, managerie, &c.
8. The king's wardrobe
9. The marshal's fee of the palace
10. Madame's household
11. Pensions to the princes and princesses of the blood
12. Expences of shews and entertainments
13. The king's secret and extraordinary expences

Total of the expences of the Court

The FINE ARTS, &c.

1. The king's buildings
2. Universities and academies
3. Pictures, prints and medals
4. Libraries, and printing-presses
5. Operas, and play-houses

Total of the fine Arts

PUBLIC WORKS

1739.	1740.	1741.	1742.
391,888	344,750	297,500	262,500
43,999	81,375	52,500	51,125
5,250	7,875	5,250	5,125
2,625		2,625	2,625
26,250	26,250	26,250	17,500
124,822	108,937	87,500	78,750
83,125	83,125	52,500	43,750
118,125	118,125		
3,937	4,375		
13,125			
83,125	80,937	64,969	67,987
		8,750	8,750
183,750	105,000	30,625	
<u>1,020,021</u>	<u>960,749</u>	<u>628,469</u>	<u>528,237</u>

COMMITTEE

201,250	206,500	253,750	122,500
21,875	21,875	9,187	5,687
26,250	26,250	5,250	6,562
30,625	30,625	26,250	17,500
8,750	8,750		
<u>288,750</u>	<u>293,990</u>	<u>294,437</u>	<u>152,249</u>

PUBLIC WORKS.

1. Bridges and causeways	-	-	-
2. Moles and banks	-	-	-
3. The Paris watch	-	-	-
4. The marshalsea of the kingdom	-	-	-
5. Prisons	-	-	-

Total of the Publick Works -

PENSIONS, SALARIES, &c.

The salaries of the prime minister, secretaries of state,
 &c. — The treasury — The orders of knighthood
 — Ambassadors — secret services; foreign pensions
 — officers of courts of justice, messengers — recom-
 pences extraordinary, &c. &c. }

COMMERCE.

1. Sundry gratifications; &c. &c.	-	-	-
2. To the East India company	-	-	-

Total of Commerce -

REVENUE.

1. Salaries, gratifications, &c.	-	-	-
2. Charges on the tenth penny	-	-	-

Total Revenue -

1739. 1740. 1741. 1742.

140,000	175,000	210,000	113,750
26,250	21,875	34,125	21,875
17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500
52,500	52,500	52,500	52,500
24,281	27,141	87,500	53,812
<u>260,531</u>	<u>294,016</u>	<u>401,625</u>	<u>259,437</u>

Table of National Debt.

847,655 788,847 750,662 742,526

The royal houses of Saxony, and St. John.

96,250	100,625	81,375	61,250
350,000	350,000	350,000	350,000
<u>446,250</u>	<u>450,625</u>	<u>431,375</u>	<u>411,250</u>

A. M. 1.

190,312	192,500	173,250	192,487
		18,375	42,875
<u>190,312</u>	<u>192,500</u>	<u>191,625</u>	<u>205,362</u>

SUBSIDIES and REMITTANCES.

01. To King Stanislaus	000,000	-	000,000
02. To the Swiss Cantons	000,000	-	000,000
03. To Sweden	000,000	-	000,000
04. To Marshal Bellisle at Franckfort	000,000	-	000,000
05. Sundry subsidies, particulars unknown	000,000	-	000,000
Total	000,000	000,000	000,000

Interest of National DEBTS.

1. Perpetual annuities	000,000	-	000,000
2. Life annuities	000,000	-	000,000
Total	000,000	000,000	000,000

The royal houses of invalids, and St. Cyr

Sundry affairs, ordinary and extraordinary, in the interior of the kingdom	000,000	-	000,000
Total	000,000	000,000	000,000

A R M Y.

1. Household troops	000,000	-	000,000
2. Marshals of France, general officers, and governors	000,000	-	000,000
3. Artillery	000,000	-	000,000
4. Fortifications	000,000	-	000,000
5. Extraordinary of war	000,000	-	000,000
6. Gratifications to the officers of the army	000,000	-	000,000
Total	000,000	000,000	000,000

V III I

1739.

1740. V A 1741.

1742.

87,500	87,500	87,500	87,500
15,750	15,750	26,250	26,250
87,500			
		111,562	
		971,250	1,050,000
190,750	103,250	1,196,562	1,163,750
Total			

CHARITIES

1,276,801	1,247,960	1,187,375	1,187,375
969,000	883,867	1,099,650	1,106,115
2,245,801	2,131,836	2,287,025	2,293,490
18,375	26,250	34,250	1,812
Total	61,250		
43,754			

General Totals

406,437	406,437	374,719	386,750
274,750	280,000	259,525	288,750
79,844	91,875	149,626	175,000
148,750	131,250	175,000	201,250
1,688,750	1,758,750	2,607,235	3,255,000
21,875	52,500		
2,620,406	2,720,812	3,566,805	4,306,750

Total

NAVY.

1. Marine	-	-	-
2. Gallies	-	-	-
3. Ordinary expence of marine	-	-	-
4. Extraordinary expence of ditto	-	-	-
5. Ordinary expence of gallies	-	-	-
6. Extraordinary expences of ditto	-	-	-
Total	-	-	-

CHARITIES.

1. Extraordinary charities, on account of the dearth of bread	-	-	-
2. Remittances of taxes, on account of overflowings of rivers	-	-	-
3. Indemnifications to contractors, farmers, &c. on account of losses and failures of crops	-	-	-
Total	-	-	-

General TOTALS.

1. Expences of the Court	-	-	-
2. Fine arts	-	-	-
3. Publick works	-	-	-
4. Pensions, salaries, &c.	-	-	-
5. Commerce	-	-	-
6. Revenue expences	-	-	-
7. Subsidies and remittances	-	-	-
8. Interest of national debt	-	-	-
9. Invalids, and St. Cyr	-	-	-
10. Ordinary and extraordinary of the kingdom	-	-	-
11. Army	-	-	-
12. Navy	-	-	-
13. Charities and indemnifications	-	-	-
Total	-	-	-

1739.	1740.	1741.	1742.
735,000 } 105,000 }	879,375		1,076,250 148,750
		700,000 319,375 96,250 26,250	
840,000	879,375	1,141,875	1,225,000
87,500	87,500		
		236,250	46,811
		393,750	
87,500	87,500	630,000	46,811
1,020,021	960,749	628,469	528,237
288,750	293,990	293,437	152,249
260,531	294,016	401,625	259,437
847,655	788,847	750,662	742,526
446,250	450,625	431,375	411,250
190,312	192,500	191,625	205,362
190,750	103,250	1,196,562	1,163,750
2,245,801	2,131,836	2,287,025	2,293,490
18,375	26,250	24,500	1,312
43,750	61,250		
2,620,406	2,720,811	3,566,105	4,366,750
840,000	879,375	1,141,875	1,225,000
87,500	87,500	630,000	46,811
9,100,101	8,990,999	11,543,260	11,336,174

Revenue of 1741	£.	9,524,539
Borrowed	-	1,050,000
		<hr/> 10,574,539

Expences of 1741	-	11,543,260
Revenue as above	-	10,574,539

Expences exceed the receipt	-	968,721
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Revenue of 1742	-	10,916,154
Borrowed	-	1,382,500

Expences of 1742	-	12,298,654
	-	11,336,174

Receipt exceeds the expence,	-	962,480
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which, with the remainders in the royal treasury of 1739 and 1740, pays off the former deficiency, and leaves a considerable sum in the king's hands.

The reason why so large a sum was borrowed in 1741, when there was so great a surplus the preceeding year, is not known.

I shall, in the next place, present you with a few explanations of those of the preceding articles, which do not sufficiently explain themselves.

Pensions

Pensions to the princes and princesses of the blood.

In 1740, these were as follow:

		£.
	Duchess of Orleans - - -	10,500
	Duke of Orleans - - -	10,500
	Duke of Chartres - - -	5,250
	Abbess of Chelles - - -	2,620
	Duke of Bourbon * (1 month of 5,250 L.)	437
House of Condé.	Prince of Condé - - -	2,625
	Count of Charolois - - -	2,625
	Count of Clermont - - -	2,625
	Duchess of Bourbon, 1st Dowager	5,250
	Duchess of Bourbon, 2d Dowager	2,625
	Mademoiselle de Sens - - -	2,625
	Mademoiselle de Charolois - - -	2,625
	Mademoiselle de Clermont - - -	2,625
	Abbess of St. Anthony - - -	2,625
House of Conty.	Prince of Conty - - -	2,625
	Count de la Marche - - -	2,625
	Princess Dowager of Conty - - -	2,625
	Mademoiselle de la Roche sur Yon - - -	2,625
	Young princesses of Conty - - -	1,750
Legitimated.	Duchess of Maine - - -	2,625
	Countess of Toulouse - - -	2,625
	Prince de Dombes - - -	2,625
	Count d'Eu - - -	2,625
	Duke de Penthièvre - - -	2,625
		<hr/>
		£. 80,937

• Died the end of January.

The King's buildings.

This article includes salaries—gardens and gardeners—water-works—statues; in 1739 and 1740 Choisy was built.

Bridges and Causeways.

The annexed and conquered countries, also Burgundy, Languedoc, Brittany and Provence, besides all taxes are obliged to maintain their bridges, and causeways, and the annexed and conquered countries, many fortifications.

Extraordinary of War.

This article includes, (besides pay) recruiting—cloathing—forage—magazines—garrisons—hospitals, &c. &c.

The rest of the articles, I apprehend, sufficiently explain themselves. I very much regret the not being able to lay before you an authentic account of the receipts and issues during the two last wars. I have a table of the expences of the year 1759, of which I shall lay before you the totals in sterling money. I should observe to you, the reduction of this and all the preceding are at 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per livre. I cannot answer so well for the original accuracy of this year, as I can for those above inserted: but believe, from the best intelligence I can gain, that it is not very far from the truth.

The

The King of France's expences during the year 1759.

1. Expences of the Court	£	470,000
2. Fine Arts	-	97,000
3. Publick Works	-	176,362
4. Pensions, salaries, &c.	-	640,450
5. Commerce	-	350,000
6. Revenüe expences	-	207,650
7. Subsidies and remittances	-	1,970,630
8. Interest of national debt	-	4,342,650
9. Invalids, &c.	-	13,150
10. Ordinary and extraordinary of the kingdom	}	46,775
11. Army	-	4,345,645
12. Navy	-	1,766,372
13. Charities, &c.	-	72,862
		<hr/>
		15,199,546

Extraordinary expences on account of the late war, given by a late author, are,

For 1756	£	5,377,778
1757	-	6,044,444
1758	-	6,000,000
1759	-	8,652,924
1760	-	11,186,431
1761	-	5,364,034
1762	-	7,076,924
		<hr/>
		49,702,535

The

The interest of the national debts, at the conclusion of the war, as follows :

£.	
Interest of the old debt, standing since 1720, at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.	1,311,110
Ditto of those contracted since	4,307,066
Total	<u>5,618,176</u>

About 1,500,000 *l.* a-year expected to be discharged in 12 years, or thereabouts.

There are some very material observations to be made on the general expences of the French government : Those of the court, fine arts, salaries, &c. are very enormous ; in 1739 they amounted to upwards of 2,300,000 *l.* or exactly a third part of the revenue, interest of the debt deducted—a proportion infinitely too great for any kingdom to thrive under. This article in England does not amount to a twelfth of the whole. In the next place, the army is 300,000 *l.* more than another third ; another excess of yet worse consequence than the former. The sum expended on the navy is, I must own, more considerable than I expected it had been, but it nevertheless is far beneath what is necessary to render France a maritime power—and even far less than was expended on it in 1750 and 1751.

The amount of the debts is prodigious, and notwithstanding their facility of paying them, must for very many years remain a dreadful burthen upon the kingdom.

I should remark to you, that the preceding receipts are, except the tenth penny, the common

and ordinary revenue of the crown; but in times of great distress, other extraordinary methods are used to raise money, many of which are very oppressive to the subject. The most common are the tenth and twentieth penny—and extraordinary free gifts; besides straining all the before recited taxes to their highest pitch. It is to such severe conduct that the nation owed their dreadful miseries during the two last wars: for being deprived of nearly all their foreign trade—the sale of their manufactures prodigiously lessened—vast tracts of their lands uncultivated for want of hands—and those which were cultivated, taxed excessive severely, all combined to desolate the kingdom. The number of men that fall by a campaign, is not the only total to be attended to, but the wretchedness brought on the country at large, by supporting such campaign—the stop put to population—the numbers that are ruined—those that perish for want—these are the circumstances which prove ten times as fatal in unsuccessful, nay, sometimes in successful periods, as the precise losses of an army. These effects will appear in their strongest colours to those who reflect on the *manner* of collecting their taxes: I touched on this point before, and it is of that infinite consequence, that too much cannot be said upon it. When great efforts are to be made, and extraordinary taxes to be consequently raised, we should remember that the poor husbandmen, and the other lower ranks of people continue even then to carry their monstrously extravagant share; the oppression therefore which must infallibly attend them in such circumstances is easier conceived than expressed.

LETTER V.

IN the preceding letter is seen how large a part of the French revenue is swallowed up by the military power. In this I shall present you with as clear an idea of the particulars of that power, as the best materials I can procure will enable me to perform, and I have great satisfaction in my authorities for this letter, as they are extremely full, and of undoubted authenticity.

There is not a more popular topic than the military power of a people, that made such a prodigious figure in the field in the last age, and that attempts in the present, to equal all their former renown. The surprizing failure of this last endeavour, adds to the curiousness of the subject. In the last war of Louis XIV. France had 440,000 men in pay, and made astonishing efforts against England, Holland, Germany, Denmark, Italy, and a considerable part of Spain; whereas in the war of 1741, she made no such figure, her armies were not near so numerous, nor were her enemies near so powerful, and yet her actions had no eclat, nor were they successful, except in the last campaign in Flanders: But what an amazing falling off was there, even from that war to the last? when England and a German electorate were her only enemies—but enemies powerful enough not only to *oppose* the whole power of France, but to *attack* her with wonderful success: In the space of a few years

years to reduce her to a more wretched situation than ever she was in the worst times of Lewis XIV.!

I have already in my first letter considered this point pretty attentively; and shall therefore, at present, only observe, that it is not in the power of the French monarchy, physically speaking, to make the efforts now, which she formerly did: The present King of France cannot raise the number of men his great grandfather did, nor if he did raise them, could he pay them. There can be no doubt of this assertion, if we consider that the revenues of Lewis XIV. were greatly more considerable than those of the present king, and that the nation wants above six millions of the number of inhabitants she consisted of, in the best times of the former monarch. These are points, in opposition to which, the most arbitrary power upon earth cannot act:— There must ever be a proportion between the efforts and the ability of a people; and whenever we see the former stretched at the expence of the latter—an unnatural languor and misery is sure to succeed, and out of which a people do not recover soon. We have seen this dangerous point strained very far lately, without any extraordinary power proceeding from it:—All which proves in the strongest manner, that there is a great falling off, both in men and money, from the last to the present king's reign.

The number of men which you will find in the following list of the French army, is by far too great for the good of the kingdom, and of no inconsiderable prejudice to the royal revenues.

LIST

LIST of the Military Land Forces of France.

The King's household.

	N ^o .
Gate guards — — — — —	55
Guards of the marshalsea of the palace — — — — —	109
Swiss guards — — — — —	100
	<hr/>
	264
Six battalions of French guards — — — — —	4655
Four battalions of Swiss guards — — — — —	2620
	<hr/>
Total infantry of the household — — — — —	7275
	<hr/>
	7275
Four companies of body guards — — — — —	1432
One comp. gendarmes of the guard — — — — —	210
One ditto of light horse of ditto — — — — —	210
One ditto of horse grenadiers — — — — —	130
	<hr/>
Total cavalry of household — — — — —	1982
	<hr/>
	1982
One comp. black Mousquetaires — — — — —	198
One ditto grey ditto — — — — —	198
	<hr/>
Total dragoons of household — — — — —	396
	<hr/>
	396
Sixteen comps. of Gendarmerie — — — — —	800
	<hr/>
Total household troops — — — — —	10,717
	<hr/>
	French

French and foreign Infantry.

155	Battalions french infantry	107,750
5	Royal ditto of artillery	2,790
6	Battalions German infantry	4,850
17	Do. Swiss	11,254
2	Do. Grisons	1,002
5	Do. Irish	3,590
1	Italian battalion	750
1	Corfican do.	640
1	Battalion Loraine guards	520
1	Company of Miquelets	64
2	Do. of Fuzileers	460
3	Independent companies of Swiss and Grisons	110
Total Fr. and foreign infantry		133,780

M I L I T I A.

100	Battalions of ancient mi- litia, 300 men each with their officers	31,300
	New militia	31,300
Total militia		62,600

155	Independent companies of inva- lids for garrison guard, exclu- sive of those who remain in the hospital	9,230
-----	--	-------

Total of the infantry 205,610

French

French and foreign Horse.

164 Squadrons 18,843

DRAGOONS.

60 Squadrons of dragoons 9,274

8 Free companies of do. 862

10,136

RECAPITULATION.

Gate guards 55

Guards to the marshal's sea 109

The hundred Swiss — 100

Household infantry — 7,275

Cavalry do. — 1,982

Dragoons do. — 396

Gendarmerie — 800

10,717

French and foreign infantry, militia and invalids } 205,610

Horse — 18,843

Dragoons — 10,136

General total 245,306

This

This list exhibits a very complete view of the forces of France, (in times when there is any likelihood of a war) and displays in too clear a manner the real principle of the French government. That kingdom is by nature too potent, to have any thing to fear from her neighbours, and consequently so great a standing army can be kept up for no other purpose than to perpetuate the slavery of the people, by finding constant pay and employment for one part of them, to keep the rest in subjection; and to be at all times ready to take the advantage of her neighbours, in attacking those who cannot be as well prepared for war as herself. This is the system of French government: a system of ruinous consequence to their neighbours, but periodically productive of absolute wretchedness to themselves. — I shall, in the next place, subjoin a list of the French army in 1748*, which will show you the addition occasioned by the war.

INFANTRY.

	Battal.	Men.
Regular national foot	356	261,455
Foreign regular foot	84	59,183
Irregulars	13	9,569
	<hr/> Battalions	<hr/> 453

CAVALRY.

	Squad.	
Regiments of horse	301	47,531
dragoons	85	13,824
Irregulars	25	3,120
	<hr/> Squadrons	<hr/> 411
		395,382

* Present State of Europe, p. 300.

Annual pay ————— £. 5,078,322

**The author from whom I take
this list, calculates the extraordi-
naries of war, navy and colonies,
&c. at as much more, ————— 5,078,322**

————— 10,156,644

But the prodigious amount of the whole shews clearly that the French government must in the last years of the war of 1741, have burthened the subject immensely, and increased their debt at an incredible rate, which will appear from examining the preceding lists—and will likewise, in some measure, explain the surprizing difficulties they were under, in finding money for prosecuting the late war.

There are some circumstances relative to the French land service which deserves to be minuted. Many of the regiments are hereditary in families; and it is not uncommon for a young nobleman of eighteen or twenty, to have the command of one given to him, as his first step in the army. There are many ill effects flowing from such abuses, which must be evident to you on the very mentioning the causes. Add to this, intrigue and court favour, are always in France the road to rank—merit in the field, is rewarded if striking, but in all other promotions, interest carries every thing; I speak in general; to such assertions, of whatever kind, exceptions are ever to be made. But the theatre, on which the French armies are generally drawn out, being Flanders or Germany, they enjoy wonderful advantages from the neighbourhood

bourhood of home behind them. The prodigious inconvenience of sending troops to fight at a distance is excessive; for instance, the house of Austria, maintaining armies in Italy, notwithstanding her having territories there——The Swedes carrying on a war in Livonia or Pomerania; the Spaniards in Italy, and above all the English in Germany. The French commissariat is an establishment, regular and excellently managed; and being master of all the back country, quite to their own doors, they are for ever well fed, well cloathed, and well supplied with every necessary*; —that is, unless their commander in chief is very negligent. During the late war no troops could be better supplied than the French, while under the Marshals d'Estrées and Broglio. With their enemies the English, it is totally the reverse. They are at an immense expence to arrive at the theatre of the war, and when got there, are supplied with forage and provisions at as great an one; infomuch that the most experienced people assert, that the French spent all the last war, a penny in Germany, to better purpose than the English a shilling. Indeed the plain consequences

* The maps of the French are all coloured agreeable to the grain they know each country produces, by which no mistakes are committed, nor fruitless journeys undertaken. And talking most languages, they are not guilty of such mistakes, which an English *quarter-master* was, who rode his horse to death to find a town, as he thought, which bore the name of *Jour de Repos*: Words which when translated mean a day of *halt*. But, being mingled with other hard names, very pleasing to strangers, particularly the *English*, his fidelity to the commanding officer, and diligence in his duty had near dismounted him for the rest of the campaign. See *Anecdotes relatives to our affairs in Germany*, p. 34.

of situation must be that disproportion; but the expence is not the only circumstance to be considered; the health of the armies is very different, sickness and death ever attends bad provisions and forage; and both these articles will always be deficient, when the commissaries are so wretchedly ignorant as the English ones—and suffered to be guilty of such numerous abuses. If all these circumstances are considered, (without reckoning the ridiculous politicks of the English intermeddling in continental affairs, when there is no absolute danger of the French becoming too powerful) it will clearly appear to be the wisest and most prudent measure which France can ever adopt, to draw, if possible, the English into Germany; such a design, if it proves successful (no matter what turn the war takes) will infallibly balance all the conquests the navy of England can make, and at any time give France the terms of peace. These assertions are not drawn merely from the effects of the late war, but from the nature and reason of the thing—A war in Flanders (the Dutch engaged with the English) is a very different affair—but even in that case, the French have greatly the advantage.

As to the French navy, I most heartily wish it was in my power to lay before you an exact account of it, as it is at the present hour—the sums lately expended upon it, and the number and state of all the ships: such a list would give the clearest idea of the designs of the French ministry, and show how intent they are upon once more disputing the empire of the sea. But, although I cannot have this entire satisfaction, I have the pleasure of nearly equalling it, in giving you a list of it, as it was in the year 1755, with all the losses of the

the

the late war, and consequently, the state of it in the beginning of the year 1763, a period of no long date. The totals * are 95 sail of the line, and 142 frigates, 9,682 guns, and 110,755 men. During the war the English took 47 sail of the line, 84 frigates, guns 5,278, and the complement of men 60,430.

I have given them their full complement of men, whereas many of them being taken at the latter end of the war, were not completely manned: Perhaps the number of men taken by the English in part of these ships, did not exceed 40,000; some were burnt, &c.

The number of guns in 1755	9,682
Taken, &c. by the enemy	5,278
	<hr/>

Remaining in 1763, of their old fleet, besides such new ones as were built during the war, and not taken	4,404
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Cost of the total fleet, at a thousand pounds a gun, ready for the sea	£. 9,682,000
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Cost of those taken, &c. by the enemy	5,278,000
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The foregoing tables offer matter for reflection of the most curious and important kind. It is from thence very evident that the French ministry made most prodigious efforts to raise a formidable naval force after the war of 1741, for most of the preceding list were built after 1748. As to

* For particulars, see a list in Letter X.

the number of ships and their force, it must be confessed, that in five or six years, to raise so shattered a navy as theirs was at the conclusion of the war, to 95 sail of the line, and 142 frigates, was acting with amazing vigor, and wonderful expedition; and proves in the clearest manner, that in respect of ships, the king of France in any ten years, if the point is determined, may exceed, and that greatly too, the puissant navy of Great Britain. That you may not think me inattentive to the greatness of the British naval power, and as it will throw a light on the succeeding argument, I shall present you with a short view of the ships that composed it in 1755, which will render the comparison between the two nations, in this respect, the more complete.

		Guns.
6 of	100 guns	600
11	90	990
13	80	1,040
3	74	222
17	70	1,190
2	68	136
3	66	198
9	64	576
27	60	1,620
5	58	290
35	50	1,750
42	44	1,848
2	30	60
50	24	1,200
3	20	60
14	14	196
6	12	72
7	10	70

	Guns.
8	72
6	42
	<hr/>
	12,232
	<hr/>
Value as before	£. 12,132,000
Ditto of French	9,682,000
	<hr/>
Superiority of England	£. 2,550,000
	<hr/>

The French ships in the list, that have dates 1750, 1751, and 1752, against them, amount in value to £. 1,354,000; but as the dates are so few, I may safely assert that the ships built by France in those three years, cost upwards of two millions sterling: nor can it be said that such a sum makes any great figure in three years revenues of the king. But to come to present times.—

The navy royal of England, at this present time, carries 13,200 guns, and the value amounts to £. 13,200,000. In 1763 the remaining French navy carried 4,404 guns; the value £. 4,404,000, which deducted from the present amount of the British, leaves £. 8,796,000 for the then inferiority of France. Four years have elapsed since, during the whole of which period, the ministry have given a most watchful attention to every concern of their fleet, and prodigious sums have been spent, and are now expending in the building ships; and the great quantities of all the materials necessary for that work now amassing, shows clearly enough that it is a business which will be prosecuted with vigor.

It should be remembered what animated spirit the kingdom showed for the increasing the

king's navy in 1762; notwithstanding the vast burthen of their taxes, most of the provinces, cities, &c. showed their eagerness in this favourite measure, by making presents to the king of ships of war, for which they voted the expence, and they were accordingly put on the stocks; they suffered so severely for want of a powerful marine, that they would submit to any burthens for *that purpose*. I shall here lay before you an extract of some of these contributions; for they will best prove to you the eager wishes of the nation in this business.

The noblesse of Lyons, remitted a considerable sum to the treasury, *for the augmentation of his majesty's marine*.——The court *des Monnoies*, the senescall's and presidial courts, and the treasurers of France at Lyons, remitted a chest full of silver for the same purpose.——The receivers general of Bourbonnois, and the receivers of the tailles of the same province, each voted the cost of a frigate of war.——The receivers of the tailles of Berry voted another——The *religious of Malta*, built a ship of war, called the St. John——The parliament of Bourdeaux, all the chambers assembled, voted a considerable sum for the augmentation of the marine, and the other courts of the same city, with divers other contributions, raised a sum sufficient, and ordered a man of war of the line to be built for the king.——The receivers general of Dauphiné voted a ship, and the receivers of the tailles another——Those of Champagne, two more——The city of Clermont Ferrand, a considerable sum of money——The noblesse of Brioude all the timber of their province fit for ship building, and transported it at their own expence.——The states of Languedoc, an eighty gun ship——In

April 1762, the contributions amounted to fourteen fail of the line, and a frigate of 44 guns, and the schetme was but four months old, at that time they had put on the stocks,

At T O U L O N.

Le Languedoc	80 guns,	The states.
Le Zélé	74	Receivers general.
La Bourgoyne	74	The states.
Le Marseillois	74	Chamber of commerce.
L'Union	64	Union of different votes.

At B O U R D E A U X.

L'Utile	54 guns,	} Farmers general.
La Ferme	54	
Le Flamand	54	States of Flanders.
Le Bordelois	54	} Parliament, city and province of Guyenne.

At R O C H E F O R T.

La Ville de Paris	90	City of Paris.
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At L' O R I E N T.

Le Diligent	74	Registers of the post.
Les fix Corps	74	} Six bodies of merchants Paris.

At B R E S T.

Le Saint-Esprit	80	Order of the Holy Spirit.
Le Citoyen	74	} Bankers of the court, and the treasurers of the extraordinary of war.

At D U N K I R K.

L'Artesienne	44	States of Artois.
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Such a spirited example was presently followed by other parts of the kingdom; the French clergy after their free gift on the eighth of May, presented the king with a million of livres, or 421750 l. sterling, towards the re-establishment of the marine. The cities of Rochfort, Rochelle and Pezenas, each a frigate. The brokers of Paris a ship of war. These contributions between April and July; I have not a correct list of the succeeding ones, but they were doubtless considerable. The ships, above mentioned, were building at the time of the late peace, and have since been launched. I quote these instances to show you how popular a business the re-establishment of the navy is in France; and that while the kingdom sees very large sums expending on the marine, they will not murmur at their burthens. The importance of trade is no where better known than in France, and the experience of the last war has fully convinced the whole kingdom that trade can only be protected by a powerful navy—as I said before, the French ministry are of the same opinion, for all the ports of France, at this time, resound with naval preparations; a puissant fleet will speedily be built, gunn'd and rigg'd—and a brisk trade with forty or fifty thousand marine forces, would in a few years supply the men. It is no exaggeration to assert, that in five years, from the present time, the French navy may equal that of England five years hence, and without at all cramping the royal treasury; but if the court of France acts with all the vigor possible, and particularly if she pursues the plan presented to the ministry by a most ingenious ship builder of Bourdeaux, (which the present train of naval business seems to import) there can be no doubt but in five years the French navy will be

so superior to that of England, as in a great measure to balance the very *reputation* of the enemy.

Indeed the expence of making the present navy of France superior in point of ships to the English, is not so great as to render it any work difficult to a monarch, with so considerable a revenue as the king of France, and sinks to nothing when we consider that he may take his own time for it, as he is very sure his enemy *will not attack him first*. The great fault of the French politicks is the beginning *too soon*.

When we reflect on the wonderful success which has so often (and more remarkably in the last war) attended the English navy, it must be owned, that the French ought not to reckon themselves on a par, in naval power, with their enemy, from possessing the same *apparent* force. In respect of ships, when once the *equality* is gained, the *superiority* will soon follow, nor will a truly politick ministry enter again into a war, before that superiority is considerable: If their resolution is fixed, and their measures vigorous, such a superior strength will be gained in a few years—indeed it may most certainly be gained much sooner than the nation at large will be recruited enough to bear the burthen of another war. A million and an half expended every year, for ten to come, would amount to fifteen, which, added to the ships built the last four years, would greatly turn the scale in favour of France, in spite of all the additions which it is at all probable England will make to her navy.

But what are ships, you will say, without sailors? — True, but those who imagine that France does not find employment to a vast number of these,

are greatly mistaken; and it is only for want of following the advice of some very able French politicians, that the ministry have not almost trebled their numbers. At the breaking out of the late war, the seamen of France amounted to 70,000: It is supposed they are at this time nearly as numerous: but they nevertheless are not in number sufficient to afford the royal navy, when augmented, its full complement. In that respect indeed, the English labour under the same difficulty, for not half the men in the king's ships in time of war are sailors by profession, but landmen.

The standing army of France, in time of peace, is from 150, to 200,000 men: It is this great number of useless hands being kept unemployed, that burthens so heavily the people; for they are taken from labour and industry, to be paid by the industrious, for leading a life of indolence. It was proposed to the ministry, on the conclusion of the peace, in a very masterly memorial, to reduce the army to 100,000 men—to raise 60,000 marines*, and train them all to the sea service, by keeping them alternately at sea and land, never letting any of them remain on shore so long as to lose their maritime skill and activity. Besides these marines, to register as soon as possible, 40, 50, 60 or 70,000 seamen; leaving them in the merchants service; but their appearance called for once a-year, on which occasion to receive each

* This advice, I am fully persuaded, was acquiesced in, and a resolution taken to follow it—Some particulars I have already mentioned, and another not less remarkable is the ordaining so early as the beginning of 1763, twenty three regiments of foot to serve on board the navy, which may be remarked as no inconsiderable beginning; as at that time, they had so few ships to man. See *Mercure de France*, Jan. 1763. p. 195. vol. 2d. It seems to be done on M. Mirabeau's plan. See letter X.

a small gratification—to keep a formidable navy constantly in commission, and on actual duty—for which purpose, it was very sensibly proposed to plant several new colonies, and improve their old ones. This part of the proposition is worthy of a more minute extract.

The memorialist remarks, that in planting colonies, regard should always be had to the number of seamen kept in employment by them: that when they were left to be settled by private people, little thought was given to such interests; and therefore it was highly adviseable to make the fixing new settlements the business of the crown—and to keep the ships in commission pretty warmly employed in it. If such ideas were embraced, it was humbly proposed, 1st, To prosecute the colony on the isle of Bourbon, with all imaginable vigor, and to establish a constant correspondence between it, and the East India settlements. 2dly, To settle the coasts of the island of Madagascar immediately; to penetrate into the country and make all the discoveries of its present state, and possible improvements, to form plantations of rice, and indigo, &c. &c. and bring home large quantities of its natural productions. 3dly, To encourage the colony of Louisiana, fix new settlers in it—employ a fleet of frigates, between new Orleans and old France, for the transportation of settlers, their materials, implements, &c.—the bringing home naval stores, and carrying out military ones—to give a bounty on the exportation of hemp, rice, indigo and cotton. 4thly, To plant colonies on some islands in the great South sea, and also the Malouin islands, near the streights of Magellan: to form, if possible, a chain of settlements around the world, with a constant communication of royal ships

ships from one to the other—from the Malouine islands to those of Solomon—from thence in various latitudes to different islands in the great pacific ocean; from them to the new Philippines, and also the great southern continent, from many parts of which it is an easy and quick voyage to the isle of Bourbon, or that of Madagascar. To form such a chain of colonies, adds the memorialist, the chief, if not all, of which would be situated in a fine and healthy climate, with a constant navigation from one to the other, of large numbers of royal ships; besides the merchantmen, which the trade of them would employ, would be laying the foundation of immense wealth to France, and be a nursery for prodigious numbers of valuable, experienced and hardy sailors.—Every colony should have one fortified post on the best and securest harbour, and if possible on a convenient inland navigation, not only for the purposes of planting and traffic, but also for the conveyance of ship timber—docks and yards and magazines of the best naval stores the countries will afford should be established—ship builders settled, men of war built, and loaded home with the productions of the respective countries, in exchange for the manufactures of France; building men of war in this manner, would be infinitely more beneficial than to have them gratis, even from the Swedes and Genoese. The king's ships, which were not employed on regular convoys, and home stations, should be constantly sailing from colony to colony—strengthening and invigorating them, and in a few years not only perfectly secure them from all foreign attacks, but establish their importance to the mother country, on the most durable foundations. 5thly, To prosecute the Newfoundland fishery with all

imaginable vigor—but to keep to the letter of the treaty fairly, and not give the court of England any reason for umbrage—to keep a fleet of store ships in the fishing season, on the banks, that the fishing ships may not find the want of Cape Breton a loss, and from this measure, find the islands of St. Peter and Miquelon amply sufficient for all *fishing* purposes.—The memorialist further shows how vast a difference there is between keeping 50,000 marines in pay, or the same number of soldiers, as the one will be, in the aforesaid manner, employed in greatly increasing the trade—and the consumption of the manufactures of the kingdom, and thereby adding prodigiously to the general wealth, and consequently to that of the king: whereas the service of the other has a direct contrary tendency. In the next place, the memorialist urged the necessity of the king's encouraging the noblesse to serve in the navy, in considerable numbers, as a great encouragement to the sailors—and lastly, proposed that in time of war the property of all prizes, royal ships and others, be vested in the captors*.

If this extremely sensible paper was not so long, I should have inserted a translation of the whole; but as it would have exceeded the bounds I could allow it, I have given you as clear an idea of its contents as I was able.

I may without any exaggeration assert, that was this plan fully and vigorously followed—all other encouragement given to the agriculture, trade and manufactures of the kingdom; the business of ship building prosecuted as before observed—and

* I have translated M. de Mirabeau's piece relative to the French navy, which is curious, and proves the truth of many of the sentiments I have ventured to adopt. See Letter X.

withal,

withal, order, regularity and oeconomy introduced into the management of the finances, and expensive connections with other powers given up—were these points to become for a few years, the principles of the French government, we should not then see England superior by sea to France, but in all probability far inferior: but all must and will depend on the giving the people a considerable time to recruit—and not hurry them into another war because the kingdom bears a flourishing appearance, and because (should such an event take place) a noble navy is ready for action: The evil day of war should be put off as long as possible; but preparations for it never forgot in the times of the profoundest peace—Such is what true politics requires of the French ministry: how far they are likely to execute such ideas, is too vague a conjecture. That part which they have engaged in, they prosecute with vigor.



LETTER VI.

SO many volumes have been written on the government, and ranks of people in France—on their manners, customs, and religious disputes; and at the same time, the three latter points tolerably well known to her neighbours, that you will not expect I should take up much of your time, in giving you any details on these subjects: I cannot, however, so entirely let them pass, but I must offer a few remarks; and endeavour to display their *real peculiarities*—for these are ever worthy of observation; and afford no slight entertainment to a philosophic mind.

The government of France is, without doubt, the most securely arbitrary of any upon earth; many have the *appearance* of more despotic authority, but none more of the *reality*. The eastern empires—the African ones—that of the Turks—the Russian, and, *in general*, those where a mere despotism reigns, are greatly subject to revolutions, and bloody catastrophes: That excess of power render them so insecure, that the prince is scarcely for a moment safe and firmly seated on his throne. Whereas in those kingdoms where parliaments, senates, or other publick bodies of people exist, with an appearance of *great* power, and the reality of *some*, between the sovereign and people, the idea of a certain degree or mixture of liberty, strikes the attention of the subject, and keeps them from engaging in those

those desperate and bloody conspiracies, which hurl so many despotic princes from their thrones.

The edicts of the king of France have not the force of laws, until they are registered by the parliament of Paris; the members of which frequently remonstrate to their sovereign in very warm and expressive terms against his edicts, and sometimes even refuse their concurrence: Here lies the security of the king's power; this show of liberty serves the people instead of the reality; they are satisfied with daring to oppose, where, in fact, opposition is of no effect; for the king holds a bed of justice, and causes his edicts to be registered in his presence—after which they have the same force, as if the parliament had registered them without him. This bed of justice, as it is called, is nothing more than the king's presiding in a council of the parliament.

Such a system of government could scarcely be framed for any purpose, but to render arbitrary power wonderfully secure. It effectually deceives the people: for to their minds, so infatuated with the magnitude of their idea of the grand monarch, such resolute opposition as his edicts sometimes meet with in Parliament, amazes them; and gives them a notion of liberty, which renders the truth less apparent. It is incredible what numbers of Frenchmen will insist violently that their king is far from being absolute—that they are a free people—and that the legislative power resides not in the king, but jointly with his parliament.

The parliaments are indeed sometimes so very refractory, and oppose the court so strenuously as so draw on themselves the immediate displeasure of the king—all the opposing members of that of Paris

Paris have been banished from the capital to some obscure towns more than once—with other signs of anger, not a little formidable to a French subject—but the popularity they gained, and their continued opposition to the royal will, was not a little flattering to the advocates of French liberty. The same spirit has animated the provincial parliaments, and induced them to persevere with the same resolute steadiness against some of the governors of provinces: they have been treated indeed pretty cavalierly, sufficiently so, one would apprehend, to convince the French patriots, that their idea of liberty is wretchedly delusive.

If you look from the parliaments to the several ranks of people, you will find the utmost deference and dependance upon the royal power; and this in a surprizing degree. The very principles of the court is, that *all must serve*, and be implicitly obedient. The very princes of the blood; the dauphin himself is nothing—the king's will, is the only enquiry. They are kept in utter dependance on the ministers, and scarce ever suffered to have any share in publick business, which naturally throws them into dissipation and debauchery—the state in which the ministers like best to see them. The prince of Conty, with great difficulty, in the war of 1741, obtained a command in Italy, gained a battle—and became popular in the army—the consequence of which was, he was immediately laid aside, and never more heard of in a military capacity.

The nobility are educated with a constant idea of obedience to the crown, and reverence for it. It is expected by the court, that they should spend some years in the service—it is the fashion—and they almost all do it—whoever omits it, can scarce
show

show himself in company. It is very easy to conceive what a vast dependency this throws them into. Their estates are in general small, not so considerable as the Spanish nobility—nor near so great as those of England; of course they stand in need of posts and pensions, great numbers of these are at the king's disposal, and add another, and no inconsiderable link to the same chain.

“The military life is entirely decisive with our nobility,” says M. de Boulainvilliers, “it is the only profession at present in France that is thought honourable. In general our gentlemen abandon their lands, and the care of agriculture, for embracing the profession of arms. We call this amongst us, serving the state. The nobility would serve it much better if they gave their attention to augmenting the riches of the monarchy, by employing themselves on the products of their estates.”

Ecclesiastical preferment is entirely in the crown, and prodigiously considerable it is: after which fact, I need not observe on the king's meeting with all reverent obedience here.

Indeed their revenues are greatly out of proportion with those of the kingdom at large. M. de Boulainvilliers says, “The clergy, in general, enjoy a rental of 8,750,000 *l.* and nevertheless they compose a body of only 500,000 subjects, that is to say, the thirty fourth part of the nation; if the rest enjoyed a proportionable revenue, that of the monarchy would be 297,500,000 *l.* whereas it is supposed to be only 87,500,000 *l.*” And in another place he says, “that their buildings alone, amount to 21,875,000 *l.* sterling.”

To rivet all the numerous sets of people that depend on the court, yet stronger to their implicit obedience

obedience—the clergy, military and noblesse, have in France a great power over the lower people, or Bourgeois, as they are called, and peasants: this power extends so far as to be twenty times a heavier burthen upon the latter, than the *immediate*, though heavy hand of arbitrary power itself. The oppressions of this sort under which they frequently labour, are very terrible. The distance between the different ranks of people, is so great, that justice scarce ever reaches the lower ones, when opposed to a superior. This is no where more visible than among husbandmen and labourers, who are so wretchedly dependant on the petty delegates of power as to meet with oppression in every shape: accordingly we see them, almost universally, a very miserable set of beings, bringing their children in general up to the army, that they may not meet with the same fate as themselves: this system unites all the superior ranks yet closer to the crown, as it is from thence they receive their power over their inferiors—but it is attended with very fatal effects upon the culture of the earth.

Even among higher degrees of men we find the same dependance of every rank, on that above it: a great nobleman has a train of people entirely dependant on him—he is the slave of the minister, and the latter of his master's mistress perhaps, but most certainly of himself.

It is the taste in France, for all that can possibly afford it, (and of course for many that cannot) to live in the capital. This is a most devoted friend to luxury, which necessarily begets poverty—and then dependance—it is therefore encouraged by the court. There are however many ill effects flowing from this practice: besides the strong tendency it must undoubtedly have to assist the views

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of the crown, in rivetting for ever its arbitrary power on the necks of the people; it occasions the provinces to be neglected; land owners not content with having a power of oppressing their inferiors on their estates, delegate it to their agents, stewards and managers; in such hands the people's misery becomes ten-fold: Agriculture receives a deep wound, in scarce ever having her interest under the eye of the lord of the soil: the poor are governed despotically by his representatives; and all ranks of people in his power, doubly squeezed, first to support the landlords expensive life in the capital; and secondly to enable the agent to fill his own pockets, a business which will not fail to go on briskly, when he is never under the eye of his master. The case would be very different, if the summer was spent in the country: instead of which, the nobility and gentry of large fortunes, reside the whole year in Paris, never seeing their estates except now and then possibly in a hasty party of pleasure, if at no great distance from Paris—but if in a remote province, scarce ever.

The manners of that celebrated metropolis (I mean among the better rank) are of the agreeable voluptuous kind, and lulls them into the most effeminate softness: of such pernicious effect is such a life, that were it not for the principle of honour, the national character would never be supported, so few commanders are there, who have not been in some measure enervated by the luxurious refinements of Paris: Indeed we find that honour has not of late years been able to make head against the stronger principles of the times, which are far from being truly honourable.

It is commonly asserted with some appearance of truth, that it is the French officers who in general

ral support the credit of their arms, and that whenever any failings happen, it is owing to the common men. I do not enquire into particular assertions, as they must ever be very dubious, but the fact ought philosophically to be true: The common men *can* have no principle but the cudgel, and sixpence a-day—they are in many circumstances of life, bore down with wretchedness, before they enter the army, expecting in the military life, bread, and an asylum from their persecutors. From their birth to their grave they never meet with any thing but slavery in a thousand different shapes, which, if it does not bow down the courage of the most daring, while hunger oppresses the body, I know not what will effect it. So circumstanced, what can be expected from their common men! Instead of wondering at their performing so little; it is to me amazing they should ever show any signs of courage: but this difficulty must be resolved into the perfection of the art of war, which by means of tactics and artillery turns an army into a mere machine—a general of the true military genius (*may I not say the false?*) now a days, expects not courage from his men, but mechanical accuracy: This is the generalship of the late war; never was any truth rendered more striking than this by the king of Prussia. He gained every thing by mathematicks and calculation—were I not an enemy to paradoxes, I should add—nothing by courage.—But to return—

Honour, of which the French talk so much, gives a principle of action to their officers, which supplies those deficiencies under which they labour in common with their men, besides that species of liberty, which they enjoy superior to the lower ranks, must operate in some measure to the

enlargement of their minds; and beyond all doubt is attended (on comparison with the common men) with effects, too often attributed to their high ideas of honour; the operation of which may possibly with greater propriety be held in opposition to the effeminaey of the capital.

These unconnected thoughts on the effects which probably may attend the luxurious lives led by such vast numbers of officers in Paris, I venture to your candour, nor doubting but you will at least agree with me in attributing *some* effect to it: the nature of the thing will not admit of preciseness.

The manners of Paris are at present pretty well known—not by travellers; for nine tenths of them are never admitted into good company—or in other words, into their supper parties; and all beside is mere form and ceremony—whereas at London, Rome, and Naples, &c. a stranger of any rank gets into the most agreeable parties with little trouble: In this respect the unsociableness of the French destroys the true politeness. In a few genuine and sensible writings—in their theatrical pieces—and by the reports of those who have resided long in France, a tolerable idea may be formed—but those who imagine it to be gained in the tours of travellers by frequenting public diversions, and the common company they unavoidably fall into, are greatly mistaken. One remark, however, in justice ought to be annexed; it is, that those who are ignorant of the truly polite manners of this famous capital suffer no loss—there would be nothing gained by the acquaintance, but satisfying curiosity.

The case is otherwise in the provinces, at some distance from Paris: You will in them find the agreeable

agreeable French cheerfulness (which certainly is a most astonishing phenomenon, all circumstances considered) mixed with every quality that can render the company of the inhabitants pleasing, without those adulterations of superficial varnish and nauseous politeness, which turn all the essence of conversation into imaginary decorations: add to this, you will not find that vile contempt of all morals when they come in competition with the fashion: these are common in the great city—but are rare in the distant provinces.

One great deficiency in the provinces of France, and which marks very strongly the inequality among the inhabitants, at the same time that it shows a badly conducted agriculture—is the want of country gentlemen, who live constantly on their own estates of small value—of one or two hundred pounds *per annum*; or in other words with an income just sufficient to live comfortably and agreeably, in a good house—well furnished; and a good table kept—This being so finely calculated, for easy gradation, from the lower to the higher ranks, is very rare in France: Where you would most expect it, you will in general find a great deficiency of the comforts of life—for such a rank of men, are not only exposed to every neighbouring great one, but in general, for want of interest, very sharply taxed. Nor is there, I may say, in all France, one well fed, well cloathed, warm, and substantial husbandman—which, of all mankind, is to the state the most useful member.

As to the laws of France, which bind all these various sets of people, I need not be particular in any information on that head: an observing man does not ask what is the law? but—how is it executed?—and when once a country is named,

the government of which is arbitrary, both questions answer themselves. Indeed this point is another of the miseries under which a people groan, whose sovereign's will is above, or rather, is the law. For instead of being protected by the laws of the land, and secure from all trespass and oppressions, what ought to be attended with these effects is turned against them by all more powerful than themselves. Infomuch, that law is a sure instrument in the hands of every rich man, for the destruction of every poor one. And as to all suits or causes, in which the king—that is any petty officer—for instance, an intendant's deputy's whore's footman is concerned against others of much the same *rank*, justice will be warped from her intent by the convincing argument of power. There lies the misery of unbounded authority being lodged in the hands of one man—for every single person rendered unhappy by the monarch himself, thousands will meet the fate from the very underling's underling.

Of all oppressions, there are none on the globe so cutting as those which flow from the law. For mankind to be involved in all kinds of wretchedness from that very cause, which ought ever to be their protection, is a sting so feelingly painful that it is past endurance—That despotism, fire, floods, or military execution should be their ruin, is an effect not to be wondered at, it is their nature, design, and very essence, when they gain a head to become the destruction of mankind—far otherwise with law—but in the perversion. In those countries which boast of freedom, *this* mode of slavery reigns—dilatoriness and expence serve the turn of those savage detestable monsters—those harpies the lawyers! Would to heaven I

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could stamp them with an epithet equal to their scoundrel profession!

There is one branch of law in France, the execution of which, is in the king, that in many respects is very valuable; I mean the police. The internal management of the kingdom from the strict and regular execution of the laws relating to the police, is extremely good in various particulars; particularly in the prevention of robberies; although in this respect an unadvisable severity defeated its intents. On the first inflicting that dreadful punishment, the breaking on the cross, for the crime of murder, it was attended with wonderful effects, which made such an impression on the court, that a fresh edict was in a few years issued, extending the same punishment to robbing—robberies became very rare—but never robbery happened without murder—the punishment on discovery, was the same—the security to the perpetrator infinitely greater: time inured abandoned people to this horrid punishment, and murders have been too common, though not near in that dreadful degree they are in some countries where the punishment is less severe.

I sincerely wish that I had any reason to think the present state of religion in France, worth one half hour of your time to read any thing that can be wrote concerning it. I know but one respect in which it is of the least consequence to civil matters—which is the re-admission or complete depression of the Jesuits—not that their *religious* tenets signify the least, but that is not the case with their *political*, which are of such a tendency that all truly sensible monarchs and states can do no otherways than extirpate them from their dominions root and branch. The political conduct of

the Sardinian court, in this respect, is worthy a minute attention.

As to the religion of the higher ranks of people in France, and of all those whose education, and converse with the world have had any effect in opening their minds, to the plain influence of common sense, in whatever shape she may appear, it is almost universally deism; but the excessive luxury of the capital, has given such power to sensuality, that even deism, it is thought, will give place to the more enticing doctrines, or rather no doctrines of materialism, which, I am well informed, has of late made surprizing advances amongst the first people in the court. What further *improvements* in these ideas the ingenuity of man may be able to invent, is very difficult to say; but I should apprehend materialism must be their *ne plus ultra*.



L E T T E R VII.

SINCE the time of Louis XIV. who prided himself so much on the encouragement of arts, sciences, and literature, they have kept their ground in France, with no slight degree of reputation: Although they have not, in the present king's reign, made so distinguished a figure as in the preceding; yet has the kingdom, in this period, produced many very eminent men, in most branches of human art and learning. As to the comparison of the two ages, the present French writers are not to be implicitly relied on, for it seems to be as much the fashion in France, to bestow excessive praise on their cotemporaries, as in England, to deny them their just share of merit. Indeed the age of Lewis XV. will by no means bear a comparison with that of Lewis XIV.

The harmony which in general reigns amongst the learned, and the artists in France—the multitude of societies for the promotion of literature, and in particular the French academy, with the taste for patronage, which is a fashion among the great—all conspire to spread a general knowledge, and bring the sciences and polite literature into repute; while the large revenues of the crown, and the riches of the better part of the nation, are the means of supporting no inconsiderable expence in the fine arts. The brilliant figure which architecture, painting, &c. made under Lewis XIV. throws a strong reflection on succeeding monarchs, who do not encourage those
arts,

arts, because comparisons are always the first ideas of mankind in these affairs: And the establishments which that monarch fixed for their encouragement could not be dropped with any degree of reputation. But there is another circumstance which will always secure the fine arts, a warm reception amongst princes, rich enough to patronize them; and that is, their being in general, the only means of gratifying their vanity, and displaying their superiority over very rich subjects. Magnificent palaces, splendid furniture, fine paintings, *collections* of all kinds, with a capital band of music, are all precisely the most alluring flattering amusements a monarch can command.

The sums which Lewis XIV. expended in prodigiously expensive buildings—and the encouragement he gave to the other fine arts, gained him six times the reputation of his numerous conquests—they acquired him such a party all over Europe, that he owed his *other* fame, in no small degree, to their friendship and partiality: There never was a monarch who was an encourager of arts and learning, that did not leave a great reputation behind him, whether he deserved it or not. What adulation has been offered to the memory of Lewis XIV. ! How different would have been the case had he neglected the fine arts !

As a *patron*, the present king of France must not be named with the last. The crown affords no inconsiderable encouragement to academies, universities, artists, &c. but it is rather the *crown* than the king. There is a great difference between walking merely in the path chalked out by another rather than be despised for leaving it—and showing by numerous actions, and the general tendency of a life, that it is inclination and taste prompts a pursuit of such an example. Thus at present in
France

France the establishments of Lewis XIV. are continued, and some pensions granted to men of learning, but no signs of the spirit of patronage in the king himself; although he had for many years a mistress of most certainly a fine taste, and who piqued herself much on the encouragements she gave to merit in every branch of art and learning. She did much: but could not infuse a taste into the king.—It will not be unentertaining to you here, to take a slight survey of the present state of the arts in France, and I rather chuse to lay before you a few observations of this kind, because there are two opinions current—the one that all *at present* in that nation is despicable—the other, that true genius, elegance and taste, exists no where else.

It is very remarkable, that notwithstanding such vast sums have been spent on buildings by Lewis XIV. and the present king, that architecture has not flourished in France. No nation in Europe has spent so much on it—and scarce any has shown a worse taste. If we examine the pride of Louis and the kingdom, the proud Versailles, we shall find it a heap of littlenesses. A vast pile of different buildings, without unity, symmetry, grace, elegance, or in short any true taste: a monument of the want of taste of those brilliant times. Examine all the other structures of that magnificent king, and none will be found equal to the Louvre: To what purpose did he build? to what purpose did he show the splendor and riches of his crown, if he did not surpass a palace already in being: a palace in the midst of his capital, which mourned the want of taste in France, to see it then unfinished! Should the wretched vanity of forcing nature in the desarts of Versailles, prevail against the dictates of genuine taste? Half the millions that were spent

to purchase ridicule there, would have rendered Paris the finest city upon earth.

But it was not in Versailles alone, that the architects of Lewis XIV. displayed their want of taste, his inferior palaces are all wanting, in that beautiful simplicity which constitutes the greatest merit of architecture: the ornaments of Trianon and Marly, which have been so extolled by the French, are in a most false and vicious taste. The castle of Maisons is praised by Voltaire without desert. There was a fatality attended all the palaces of Louis XIV. The only building in a good taste, was the new church of the royal hospital of invalids, and even this edifice is some removes from perfection.

If we examine the structures raised by the present king, we shall in the proportion of number have yet less to commend. The buildings he directed to be raised at so considerable an expence at Choisy and Bellevue*, are proofs of this assertion; they are fine edifices, but not beautiful ones. Indeed the present French taste, as well as that of the times of Lewis XIV. wants the simplex munditiis in architecture: finery, show, and sumptuous ornaments, are preferred before that elegant simplicity which results from symmetry in perfection.

The square of Lewis XV. which was finished in 1754, from the designs, and under the conduct of M. de Gabriel, first architect to the king, is a very fine one, and does honour to the city, at whose expence it was laid out, and the architecture which partly surrounds it, does more credit to the nation, than any other piece of the present age. The facade is truly noble. It must in general

* For M. Pompadour.

be allowed that the square will be a very fine one.

Architecture in France, is under the direction of an academy royal, at the head of which M. de Marquis de Marigny, director general of the buildings, gardens, arts, academies and manufactures, presides *. They have a constant meeting for three hours every Monday afternoon. This is an extreme good institution, as it is the certain means of causing a communication of sentiments: regu-

* The following was, not long since, a correct list of their members:

M. de Marigny, *director*.

M. Gabriel first architect, and inspector general of the buildings to the king, president.

L'Ecuyer, comptroller of Versailles.

Soufflot, comptroller of Paris.

Billaudel, comptroller of Marly.

Azon, comptroller of Choisi.

De Cotte, comptroller of the invalids.

De Luzi, comptroller of Vincennes.

Tanevot — De Vigny — Contant —

Chevotet. —

Beaufire, eldest architect of the city.

De Lespee.

Camus, secretary and professor of mathematics.

Loriot, professor of architecture.

Cartaut.

SECOND CLASS.

Loriot, professor of architecture.

Guillot — Manfard — Godot. —

Beaufire the younger — Potain —

Le Charpentier — Blondel —

Franque — Le Franc — Brebion —

De Lespee the younger.

Moranzel, comptroller of Fontainebleau.

Hupot, engineer in chief, of the highways, and bridges of the kingdom.

lar conversation between artists of the same profession, must sometimes turn on the profession itself, to the mutual advantage of all. And the schemes and plans which are examined amongst them, are more likely to have all their real defects pointed out, than by the mere handing about, which is practised in other countries. It is true, all the academies upon earth, will not alter the national taste if it is bad, and scarcely improve it to perfection if it is good; but whatever that taste is, they will form an execution in it, more perfect than it is probable individuals would. More also is required, by the nation, of an architect, who is held up to the public eye; as a member of the academy, than of one not so generally known; a greater emulation to excel springs from this circumstance.

The following are the most celebrated architects *at present*, in France:

B O S C R Y.

Most known by the gate of the market place of St. Germain, and the chapel of Lorn, and college.

C O N T A N T.

The abbey of Pantemont, the belvidere of St. Cloud, and the manufactory of tobacco, are his best works.

P E R R O N E T.

Famous for his machines for the construction of bridges.

G U E S P I E R E.

Some of the sketches in his collection are elegant.

SER-

S E R V A N D O N I.

The front of the church of S. Sulpice. Many decorations for public feasts.

S O U F F L O T.

Many edifices in Provence, and the church of St. Genevieve.

* * * * *

The art of sculpture has flourished in France, greatly more to the credit of the nation than that of architecture. She has produced several statuarys of great and distinguished merit—acknowledged such by all Europe, as well as France; and what is worthy of remark, the present age, or that of Lewis XV. is not destitute of genius in this path: it does not deserve the censures, I might say ridicule, which some Italian authors have thrown on it. The academy royal of painting includes sculpture; an establishment, which upon the whole has flourished from its first institution, with no small degree of reputation: I shall lay before you a concise view of the most celebrated of the French sculptors, that have adorned the present age in France.

A D A M,

This artist, to most of the branches of his art, joined a fine execution. There are at Berlin, two groups representing the sports of hunting and fishing, in which he displayed the power of his chisel. In the hotel de Soubise, the figures of poetry, painting, music, justice, history and renown, in plaister; at Versailles, the Neptune and Amphitrite;

trite; and at Saint Cloud, the Seine, and the Marne are all of his hand. His Prometheus, though much admired by some, is celebrated for nothing, but the infinity of labour bestowed upon it. His group of five figures, and five animals, at Versailles, in bronze—Mars, caressed by Love, at Bellevue—The enthusiasm of poetry—St. Jerome, in marble, for the invalids—Abundance, turning her gifts towards the earth, at Choisi, are all of his hand.

A D A M,
NICHOLAS. The Mausoleum of the queen of Poland, at Bon-secours. The two figures in the front of the chamber of accounts. The assumption for the chapel of the college of Grammont. The annunciation in the front of the oratory, in the street St. Honore, and the Indian religion, are his best works.

B O U S S E A U,
JAMES. This most industrious artist became first known by his Ulysses. He is almost the only instance, of mere laboriousness raising a man from obscurity, to be the first artist of a great monarch; this was the case of Bousseau, for he laboured up the hill, until he became first sculptor to the king of Spain. Many pieces of his are at Madrid. His tomb of M. d'Argenson has merit; but the same cannot be said of his St. Louis, nor his bas-relief in the chapel of the house of Noailles, at Notre-dame.

B E R T R A N D.
 His best work is the group in bronze of the rape of Helen, at Trianon. His figures of our Savi-

our, justice and power, at Notre-dame, are inferior, but not entirely without merit.

B O U C H A R D O N.

This sculptor was undoubtedly one of the greatest of the French artists, and indeed of all modern times. He studied some time at Rome, and became the envy of that capital. Besides a great number of admirable designs in crayons, he produced pieces of sculpture, of a noble and genuine merit. At St. Sulpice, are six apostles, a Christ, a virgin, and several tombs, of his hand; pieces, in which the subject was a shackle upon his genius, but not sufficiently so, to divest them of great merit. In the chapel of Versailles is his bas relief of S. Charles. In the park, his Proteus. At Gros Bois, a hunter taming a bear. At Choisi, Love making a bow of Hercules's club. In the Grenelle street at Paris, the fountain, is one of his finest works, by some reckoned the best. In the square of Lewis XV. the equestrian statue of that monarch; his chef d'oeuvre.—Bouchardon greatly improved himself at Rome—nature had given him talents, the most agreeable and delicate; and the study of the antique, joined to them the severe and noble; constituting altogether the truly beautiful, as the distinct character of his works. The fecundity and noble singularity of his inventions, the greatness of his ideas, combined with the most native simplicity, strike in every movement of his chisel. In most of his bas reliefs, the characteristics of each sex, and every age, are finely varied. The contrasts of his groups, and his admirable stile of architecture which adorns them, are circumstances, in which

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he was peculiarly happy. It was by the neatness, energy and precision of his touch, that he threw into marble and bronze, life and sentiment itself*.

C O U S T O U,

(WILLIAM) An artist of no inconsiderable merit. His principal pieces are, the mausoleum of cardinal du Bois, in the church of the chapter of S. Honore. Hercules and Pallas, in the hotel de Soubise. Mars and Minerva at the Invalids. The bas-relief of Lewis XIV. on horseback at Lyons. And two magnificent groups at Marly, representing two horses broke by equerries; and a bas-relief at Versailles, in bronze, representing the visitation of the virgin. And an Apollo, in marble, at Bellevue.

C O Y Z E V O X.

The figure of that great minister, M. Colbert, on his tomb, in the church of S. Eustachius. The groups of Renown, and Mercury, in the Thuilleries. The player on the flute, in the same garden. The Neptune and Amphitrite, at Marly, with many very fine busts, are the chief works of this artist, who was blessed with a most fruitful imagination, and an admirable execution.

C O U S T O U,

(NICHOLAS.) An artist of great merit, both in his ideas, and the touch of his chissel. The pieces most admired, are, the group of the Seine and the Marne;

* See *Essai sur le Sculpture*, par D. Bardon, p. 198. and *Essai historique*; *Mercur de France*, Sep. 1762, p. 156.

the countryman hunting; the two nymphs; and the statue of Julius Cæsar, in the garden of the Thuilleries. The descent from the cross, in the church of Notre-dame, is a master-piece full of character, design, and pathetic majesty of expression. The bas-relief of the passage of the Rhine, in the gallery of Versailles, and the Tritons at the rustic cascade.

C H A L L E.

A virgin wrapping herself up in her garments, a work of merit, which he exhibited in the salon of the Louvre in 1763. The turn of the neck and the crossing the hands, are well imagined: but the drapery is not equal to the capability of the subject. The idea of his Columbus, is trite, but the execution is not without merit. Castor descending on horseback into hell, is a middling composition.

C A F F I E R I.

His busts of the prince of Condé, M. Taitbout, and M. Piron, the celebrated poet, have great merit.

D A T E.

An artist of superior merit, if we consider his progress; rising highly from so low a beginning. One of his finest pieces is, a bust of the king of Sardinia; to which monarch he is sculptor. His martyrdom of St. Philip, in bas-relief, at Versailles, is his best piece.

F R E M I N.

The merit of his St. Sylvia, at the Invalids, which was not his best work, procured him the post of first sculptor to the king of Spain; accident and intrigue, too often, give the rewards which merit alone should confer.

F A L C O N E T.

A sculptor of genuine merit. The group of Pigmalion at the feet of his statue, in the moment of animation, is wonderfully elegant. A little Cupid who breathes upon the arm of the figure, seems to be the source and author of the fire that gives the life: which, by the most agreeable delusion, is almost seen gradually to animate the whole. It is this distinction between the part animated, and the rest *to be* animated, that appears to remove the subject beyond the bounds of art itself; and which never was attempted before. The more this group is examined, the more will be remarked with surprize in the statue of the woman, an expression so just, and so clothed with surprize, as to occasion those touches of astonishment, those movements, almost insensible in the effect, the first sentiments of a being who holds its life from the power of love, and receives, at the same time, all the passions, so soft in their birth, which result from its first fires. Sentiments native and faithful to the moment.—Simplicity of character, united to the delicacy of the action, eminently distinguish this charming statue. In the figure of Pigmalion, the artist's skill is not less eloquent: he is, as I observed before, at the feet of the

the statue : he feels in that position, the emotion which makes him ready to dart towards it : his hands are clasped the one in the other ; an action natural to the situation, and which mark, at the same time, the prodigy and the sentiments resulting from it. Joy, surprize and love, are expressed with such an enthusiasm in Pigmalion, that he doubts if it is not rather by the glances of his eyes that the statue is animated, than by the supernatural power of the gods whom he invoked. The action of the little Cupid, is a happy invention. It was by this means, that the artist very well supplied, what might easily have been employed by painting, but which seemed wanting to sculpture : It renders us more sensible of the effect from the cause, for, from this Cup'd, we perceive more clearly the change from *matter*, to an animated figure. In a word, the truest way to form an idea of the merit of this group, is to figure to one's self the reality of the fable which it represents*.

Besides Pigmalion, he did—France, embracing a bust of the king—Flora and Pomona, for the marshal de Noailles—Music, in marble, at Bellevue—Flora, at Creci—The four seasons

* A monf. Falconet, sur son groupe de Pigmalion.

Emule de Pigmalion,

Falconet, rien ne te résiste :

Sur nous vois de ton art la tendre impression ;

Entens les noms flatteurs prodigues à l'artiste !

Sous tes doigts, sans Vénus, le marbre est animé,

Il respire, il se meut, il paroît enflammé.

D'un talent plus qu'humain puissance peu commune !

En fixant ta statue, on s'écrie : en est-ce une ?

par M. Guichard.

Merc. de F. Oct. 1763. p. 19.

in bas-releif, for the prince de Soubise——The tomb of madame de Lalive——and the chapel of the virgin, at St. Roch.——

H U T I N.

An artist of merit; he has displayed some pieces rich in idea—but his execution is not equal.

H U E S.

The author of many pieces which are celebrated at Paris. His St. Andrew glorifying God upon the cross, is a bad subject, but the design is correct, and the execution good.

L O R R A I N.

Executed many of the models of the famous Girardon. His finest pieces are at Savernes; but the bas-releif representing the horses of Apollo, and the statues of the four seasons, which are in the hotels de Strasbourg and Soubise, have merit. The tomb of Girardon, at S. Landri, is also of his hand.

D u M o n t.

Performed many excellent works, and had not an unfortunate catastrophe deprived the world of his labours, at an early age, he would in all probability have proved a very great artist. His figures of St. John and St. Joseph, at S. Sulpice, are fine.

Le M O Y N E.

The author of a great number of pieces ; many of which have great merit. The bas-releif, of the carrying the cross at Versailles; the adoring angels at the Invalids ; and the busts of the duke regent of Mansard and Sargiliere, which are in the hall of the academy royal, are all of his hand.

Le M O I N E.

One of the most celebrated artists at present in France, chiefly noted for his excellent busts ; but the few groups he has performed, are not of equal merit. Several of his busts of the present king are finely executed ; that of M. de la Tour the painter, is an admirable piece, which advances near to the utmost perfection of this branch of the art. That of the countess de Brionne, is excessively delicate and graceful, and had too much merit to need the foreign assistance of *colour in the cheeks*, which is a stroke of *the truest French*, I remember to have seen. The tomb of Crebillon the poet, has great merit : nor is the statue of Thérèse inferior, he executed it for the Carmelites, in the Grenelle street at Paris ; the attitude and drapery, are both exceeding good. His best works are, the equestrian statue of Lewis XV. at Bordeaux—the ocean, in bronze, in the basin of Neptune at Versailles—Mignard's tomb, at the Jacobins church, in the street St. Honoré—the statue of Lewis XV. at Rennes—the statue of St. Gregory in marble, for the Invalids. A bas-releif in marble, of the annunciation, for St. Lewis of the Louvre.

P A J O N.

His allegorical figure of painting has great merit; it is performed in the stile of the true antique; the position, drapery, and *simplicity*, are excellent. His Lycurgus, has a noble singularity, an austere simplicity; is learned, expressive, and faithful to the character.

P I G A L E.

An artist highly celebrated by his countrymen; and one who obtained the preference of the celebrated Bouchardon: His execution far exceeds the justness of his genius, for his expression of the passions is seldom happy. His Venus, which he executed for the king of Prussia, is beneath the reputation of the artist. A virgin in marble for the Invalids—a Mercury at Berlin—Friendship in marble, and the statue of Lewis XV. both at Bellevue, are his best pieces.

P A U T R E.

A sculptor of no inconsiderable merit. He executed the group of Æneas and Anchyses in the garden of the Thuilleries. St. Marcellus, at the Invalids. Attalanta, at Marly; and the four seasons in bas-relief, at Meudon.

S A L Y.

His execution has a neatness in it, that is greatly pleasing; but his pieces are not remarkable for great

great expression. His best work is the statue of Lewis XV. at Valenciennes.

S L O D T Z.

(SEBASTIAN) His best pieces are, the figure of Hanibal in the Thuilleries; the group of Proteus and Aristecus at Versailles. The statue of Ver-tumnus at Marly; the bas-releif of St. Louis at the Invalids.

S L O D T Z.

(PAUL AMBROSE) His marriage of Cana, and his Icorus, are pieces of merit. His other works of note, are a bas-releif of the history of St. Lewis at Versailles; and the mausoleum, in marble, of the marquis de St. Megrin at St. Denis.—

S L O D T Z.

(RENE MICHAEL) Commonly called Michael Angelo. He studied at Rome: To the fine taste of design, which he there acquired, he joined the most happy enthusiasm. Among many other excellent pieces, the following are well known: St. Bruno, in St. Peter's at Rome. The tomb of the marquis Caponi. That of cardinal Auvergne at Vienna. The funeral monument of M. Languet de Gregy, at S. Sulpice in Paris. The copy of Michael Angelo's Christ at Choisi.

V A N C L E V E.

The figure of the Loire, at the Thuilleries, and the fountain of Diana at Versailles, are reckoned in France his best pieces.

VASSE,

V A S S E.

(ANTHONY) An ingenious artist, but never executed any pieces of note. His decorations have merit.

V A S S E.

(CLAUD) His finest work is the tomb of the princess Galitzin; the figure of the woman, in it, leaning on the square pedestal, weeping over an urn which she covers with her drapery, is exceedingly fine, and in the true taste of the antique: The light folds of the drapery which display *the naked* through them, have that elegant finishing which justly attracts admiration.

V I N A C H E.

An artist with most agreeable ideas, and in some of his smaller pieces, an easy execution: His bas-relief of St. Theresa at Versailles is his best piece.

Painting in France, is under the direction of the academy royal of painting and sculpture, and consists of the most eminent artists in the kingdom, in those branches; and also engraving. It is an establishment which does honor to Lewis XIV. and has beyond all doubt been of no inconsiderable service to the professors of those arts. The art of painting has flourished with great reputation in France, from the middle of the last century; and although she has not, in the present age,

age, produced any men that excel Poussin, le Sœur, and le Brun, yet may she boast of a large list of painters, who, on comparison with those of the rest of Europe, will make a very distinguished figure. General painting, by which I mean history, landscape, &c. is the taste of the kingdom: The royal family, and the great nobility, ornament their hotels with the productions of French artists, a large quantity of their pieces are sold to different parts of Europe; and it is worthy of remark, that many of them bear a very high price. These circumstances are extremely favourable to the art, and make it flourish more at this time in France, than any other country of Europe. But I forbear entering into any general details, as the clearest idea you can gain, will result from laying before you a list of the principal French painters of the present age, with a few slight remarks on their works.

A U T E R E A U.

Confines himself chiefly to portraits: his likenesses are striking, but the hardness of colouring which appears in his pieces, is disagreeable.

A V E D.

Likewise a portrait painter, but of superior merit to the former.

B O U L L O N G N E.

An excellent painter; he joined in his compositions, a noble enthusiasm, to a wonderful elegance. His picture of Augustus shutting the temple

ple of Janus, which he executed for his reception into the academy: his four elements: his flight into Egypt; with many of his pieces at Notre-dame, at the Hotel-de-Ville, and at the Chartreux, &c. have great and distinguished merit.

B E L L E.

Famous for portraits; in which branch of his art, he was some time at the head in France. The truth and brilliancy of his colouring, with the liveliness of his expression, render some of his pieces valuable for their genuine merit---independent of all family or other prejudices.

B E R T I N.

Remarkable for his happy talent of designing. His forte lay in small pieces for cabinets; there is a strength and nervousness in his manner, somewhat peculiar to himself. His finest pieces are at St. Germain.

B O U C H E R.

An agreeable and elegant painter: his infant Jesus sleeping, is finely coloured, and designed with a most flowing contour. The shepherd asleep, on the knees of his shepherds, is a sweet little landscape of singular merit. Many of his other landscapes, are peculiarly happy. His other most noted pieces are pastorals for the manufacture of tapestry, at Beauvais---the muses in the king's library (with Vanloo and Natoire)---the four seasons, in the figure of infants, for the ceiling of the council room at Fontainebleau---a hunt of tygers, &c. &c.

B R E N E T.

B R E N E T.

The works of this painter are deservedly admired, for the expression of his ideas, and the elegance of his colouring; but he seems to copy an error of Parmegiano in drawing his hands too long.

B E A U D O U I N.

He was ridiculed undeservedly for never painting any thing of merit sufficient to advance him to any academy, upon which he produced his Phyrna accused before the Areopagus of impiety; a piece of rare merit; and he was accordingly accepted. She is defended by an orator, who uncovers the head and breast of that beautiful woman to the judges: the groups of this picture are finely disposed—the characters just and striking, the clear obscure of most bewitching elegance—and the naked of Phyrna, delicately beautiful. His portraits have merit.

B A C H E L I E R.

Celebrated for his flower-pieces; in which class he was a member of the academy: He painted the death of Abel, to be received into the class of history, and succeeded, but the piece is far from having the merit, which those are famous for, that are performed in the natural path of his genius. He designed the ornaments of flowers, for the magnificent edition of La Fontaine.

B A R D O N.

The designs of this painter are correct and spirited; and his knowledge evidently great; but his colouring wants harmony, nor are his pieces excellent in point of clear obscure. His best known pieces are his grand picture for the daughters of St. Thomas, of Ville-neuve; and the death of the virgin, for the capuchins of Marais. He wrote a treatise on painting and sculpture, which has merit.

B O I S O T.

His colours are wanting in that luminous brilliancy greatly required in many subjects. His picture of Lewis XV. in the character of Augustus conferring with Mecenus and Agrippa, has greater merit than any of his other pieces would give one reason to expect. One of his best is his history of the virgin, for the convent of Monbrison.

L e B E L.

Some of this artist's pieces are most happily designed, and most elegantly coloured. I have seen several of his landscapes, almost equal to Vernet himself.

C H A R D I N.

His fruit pieces have rare and genuine merit. Nothing can be more just, and of a more lively nature than some of his small pieces. His breakfast is wonderfully elegant and attracting. See

also his picture called le *Benedicite*, done for the king, and the laborious mother, at Bellevue.

Le C L E R C.

Ananias falling dead at the feet of St. Peter, is a fine piece.

C O U R T I N.

His best works are the two grand pieces which are on the sides of the altar of the capuchins, in the street of St. Honoré.

C O Y P E L.

Brother of the famous painter, who flourished in the age of Lewis XIV. He possessed a wonderful facility of composing, and displayed in the execution an infinity of graces. Many of his pieces are to be seen in the church of the Sorbonne, in the apartments of the academy, in the royal palaces, &c. &c. His triumph of Amphytrite is justly celebrated for the picturesque ordonnance, the fine disposition of the groups, and the lively fresh vigor of the colouring. The ceiling which he painted for the chapel of the Virgin, in the church of St. Saviour, the admirable artist has displayed the magical effects of the clear obscure, with such delicacy of pencilling, and such brilliancy of the *route-ensemble*, as justly to entitle him to the praise he acquired.

C O Y P E L.

(CHARLES) In most of his compositions are to be found erudition, fine sentiments, and lively expressions.

pressions. Great numbers of his works are to be seen at St. Germain's Auxere, in the cabinet of the duke of Orleans, and in St. Lewis of the Louvre, &c. &c. &c.

C A Z E S.

A painter of great merit; but one whose reputation would have been greater, had he not wrought too servilely in imitation of Bourdon, who was not a master great enough to justify the practice. His St. Stephen, St. Peter, the adoration of the Magi, the martyrdom of St. Peter and St. Paul, and the combat of Hercules and Archelaus, are his finest pieces.

C A S A N O V A.

His combat of cavalry, which gained him a reception into the academy, displays not only the fire of his imagination, but the warmth and brilliancy of his execution.

C H A L L E.

An artist, rather in the pleasing, than in the great stile. In some of his pieces he has been very happy in his attitudes, nor is his colouring without merit; but he has not that correctness of design which some artists prize so highly. His best pieces are the death of Hercules, Esther at the feet of Ahasuerus; and a sleeping Venus.

D E S P O R T E S.

The Snyders of France. He excelled greatly in the art of painting animals, flowers and fruits:

A vast

A vast number of his pieces are to be seen in the royal palaces.

D O Y E N.

His greatest and best work is Ulysses taking Aftyanax from his father's tomb, and ordering him to be thrown from the walls, in spite of all the efforts of Andromache, to tear her child from the foldier that had seized him; a large picture, 21 feet broad, by 10 high, executed for the infant duke of Parma. The expression in this piece is very fine, particularly the rage, mixed with grief, in the countenance of the mother—the brutality of Ulysses, and the attention of some of his followers. The correctness of design in some of the figures, is fine; but in others, the attitudes are exaggerated; and the unity of the groups not well preserved. *Monf. Jouvenet's* picture of the same subject, though not so large a composition, is a much finer; the figure of the foldier in that, is finely designed—the terror of Andromache, more expressive, but above all the clinging and shrinking back of the child, is inexpressibly natural; these touches are inferior in the piece of M. Doyen.

D E S H A Y E S.

This artist received the first elements of design from his father: he afterwards practised at Paris, under M. Vermont; but learned from *Restout* those excellent principles, which received such honor from his natural talents. He soon gave proofs of his genius, in obtaining many of the medals which the academy gave as prizes for design. In a journey he took to Rouan, (his native place) he
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obtained

obtained several commissions for historical pieces, to his no small encouragement; several of these he executed while under M. Restout. His picture of Potiphar's wife, which he painted as a candidate for the academy's prize, procured him the friendship of M. Boucher, at that time, first painter to the king: Restout consented to yield the young Delhayes, as an elve of that artist. In 1751, he carried the first prize of the academy, and in consequence became a disciple of the king's school, under the direction of M. Carlo Vanloo; and during three years he profited greatly of the instructions he received from that great master. In this situation he executed many pieces of great merit. After this, he resided some time at Rome; and in spite of very bad health, prosecuted his profession with unremitting diligence, and great success. On his return to Paris, he married the daughter of M. Boucher, and was received into the academy with universal approbation: The pictures which he presented on that occasion, were of such merit as to give very sanguine hopes that he would one day become one of the greatest of the French artists. Every successive exhibition at the Louvre, proved in the clearest manner, that his reputation was fixed on the surest foundation: But he died in the midst of his career; in the beginning of the year 1765. The principal of his works are, the history of St. Andrew, in four large pictures at Rouen; the adventures of Helen, in nine pieces, for the manufactory at Beauvais; the death of St. Benet, at Orleans; the deliverance of St. Peter, at Versailles. The marriage of the virgin, is a subject simple in itself, but is nobly elevated by the painter. The grand priest is standing up, and turned towards the sacred spouse; his arms are extended, and his countenance directed towards
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the illumined glory. Scarce any thing can be more divinely expressive than the air of this head. The grandeur and majestic simplicity of the virgin's head, is finely conceived; and her whole figure admirable. The picturesque composition of the group is very well managed—the draperies are in a bold and elegant taste—the lights and shades finely imagined, melting into all the happy effects of the clear obscure.—His resurrection of Lazarus, is full of expression: the different emotions of surprize, terror, and admiration are most ingeniously varied, and finely characterised in the three apostles. The two women who behold the miracle, display the invention of the painter, one of them is full of astonishment mixed with terror, at the idea of the sight before her—the other falls prostrate to the ground, adoring the divine worker of the miracle: the whole piece is full of character and expression.—His picture of Joseph's chastity, is one of the finest that ever issued from his happy pencil: Potiphar's wife is represented darting herself from the bed, and catching Joseph by his garment. The crime, hope and fear of her passion, are expressed in the most lively manner in her eyes and countenance: that part of her figure which the linen, with which she is partly covered, leaves to the view, is full of charms, the happiest imitation of the finest nature. The delicacy of the tints, and the whole artifice of the colours are such, that they produce in the naked part, all the roundness, and other fine effects of natural relief. The figure of Joseph is well designed, but it was on the woman that the painter, with great justness, bent all the efforts of his imagination, and his art. The combat of Achilles against the Xanthus and Si-

mois*. In his Jupiter and Antiope, the figure of the woman is wonderfully delicate and pleasing. A small piece representing study, very fine: Artemisia at the tomb of her husband, &c. &c. &c.

DELOBEL.

His best works are, the marriage of Toby, at St. Eustache. The picture of the chapel of St. Margarita, at St. Lewis in the Isle. The union of France and Lorrain, for the king. The ceilings of the two pavilions of Aurora at Sceaux, for the count d'Eu. The vow of Lewis XIII. and the assumption of the virgin at Danmartin. At Guigne, the picture of the parish church; the martyrdom of St. James, a holy family, and a St. Bernard, all at the same place. An annunciation at Passy. A grand piece of St. Michael, at St. Michael Beauvais.

DUMONS.

His best picture is the grand altar-piece of the capuchins in the street St. Honoré.

DUMONT.

The picture of the chappel of M. Bernard, and the crucifixes which are in the chambers of the court of aids, are his best works.

DROUAIS.

Some of the miniatures of this artist are excessively elegant and pleasing: There is a delicacy in his touch, highly excellent in that branch.

* See M. Cochin's *Essay sur la Vie de M. Deshayes*.

DROU AIS.

Son of the preceding. A young artist of great hopes: His portrait of the count of Artois, and *madame*, playing with a goat, are agreeably invented, and well executed: his little nurse, or a young girl playing with a cat, is lively and elegant.

F R A G O N A R D.

His Corefus sacrificing himself to save Callirhoe, is very fine for the composition and picturesque ordonance; and remarkable for a most bewitching harmony of colours, producing the finest effects of the clear obscure: the fine easy flow of pencil in the works of this artist is never attended with a want of finishing.

F A V R A Y.

A knight of Malta: His church of Malta has merit, but the subject is wretched, for any but the pencil of Paul Veronese.

G U E R I N.

The manner of this artist has an originality in it, but is not perfectly agreeable. His pieces in oil are reckoned by some his best works.

G R E U Z E.

One of the finest painters of whom France can boast: His works are distinguished by a thousand circumstances, which render them the delight of all spectators. His *Pere de famille*, in

which is represented the old man giving his daughter, with a portion, to an honest lad, whom he instructs in his duty, is wonderfully natural and expressive; and contains many most inimitable touches: his *filial piety*, or the effect of the old man's instructions, is likewise worthy of all the praise that can be bestowed on it. The figure of the paralytick old man is designed in a most superior manner: the airs of all the heads, particularly those of the man and his wife, are finely expressive: the different characteristical degrees of grief, in the group around him, exquisitely imagined, and executed in the happiest manner. The attitudes fine; the ages all distinctly marked, and, in a word, every point of composition united to render the picture worthy of the artist. His piece representing a young woman, her head reclined upon her hand, bewailing the loss of a canary bird, which lies dead in a cage, is a work of most inimitable expression: nothing but life itself can equal the spirit and striking truth of this piece. His portraits have all great merit; and his merely grotesque pieces are full of life and expression.

G R E N E E.

A painter of distinguished merit. His *St. Ambrose*, and the apotheosis of *St. Lewis*, are correctly designed, finely touched, and the folds of the drapery in the most perfect stile of Guido himself. His *clemency appeasing justice*, is a very fine piece: the character of the heads, the delicacy of the pencil, and the freshness of the colours deserve great praise. His sacrifice of *Jephtha*, is elegant and delicate. His *Magdalen*, finely coloured.

His

His Roman charity, of admirable expression, particularly in the countenance of the daughter. His return of Abraham, is well designed—likewise his Diana and Endymion, claims great praise; the body of the latter is finely designed, and very well coloured. His Susannah, surprized in the bath by the two old men, has great expression, particularly in the head of Susannah, and the design of her whole figure is very happy; the old men are finely contrasted to her. His Aurora quitting Tithonius, is yet more brilliant, and of a finer expression than the preceding, and the colours are wonderfully happy. His soft captivity, in which is represented the bust of a young woman caressing a pigeon, which she holds between her hands, is delicate and pleasing. His small piece of a virgin caressing an infant Jesus; and another of a virgin preparing food for the divine infant, are exquisite in design, colouring, and composition.

G A L L O C H E.

A mannerist; but many of his pieces are fine; particularly his resurrection of Lazarus. The departure of St. Paul, St. Louis, St. Nicholas. The Samaritan, his Hercules: his two pictures in the refectory of the Augustins, in the place des victoires; and the altar-piece of the Capuchins, at Meudon.

H A I L L E.

Might without exaggeration be called the elve of nature; for he studied her with the utmost diligence, and accordingly trode in the paths of the great artists. He had great happiness in the dis-

position of his compositions; his expressions were graceful, and his clear obscure very just and pleasing. His best pieces are the extacy of St. Paul—the descent from the cross—the martyrdom of St. Vincent—the annunciation—and our Saviour driving the money changers out of the temple.—But what subjects are these for the pencil of a genius! Besides these, he did some figures in the ceiling of the great salon of the hôtel du Luxembourg. Our Saviour ordering the apostles to let the children approach him—and the figure of Justice in the second chamber of inquests.

H A L L E. His relation of the preceding. His pencilling is light and flowing; and his colours agreeable. The emperor Trajan alighting from his horse to hear the complaints of a poor woman, painted for the gallery at Choisy: the colours are good, and the execution neat. The head of Trajan is justly in the true stile of an antique. Hippomenes and Atalanta, is an agreeable picture, the ordonnance just, notwithstanding the number of figures; the two principal of which are elegantly light and airy. His Abraham, entertaining the angels, has merit.

H U I L L O T.

His flower pieces are elegant and agreeable.

I M B E R T.

His best piece is his *Spettacle du calvaire*, in which the taste of design is just: the colouring middling; the expressions strong, and the picture in

in general good. This painter turned a monk at the age of 34, a proof that he had but little imagination !

J O U E.

His sea pieces are the best of his works; in this walk, he would be reckoned excellent, was it not for the superior merit of a noted cotemporary.

J E A U R A T.

An artist of merit in the representation of popular and domestic scenes. His painter, drawing the portrait of a young woman, is well performed in that stile; and his conversion of St. Paul has merit.

L O U T H E R B O U R G.

A young painter of the most brilliant hopes. He has performed a vast number of landscapes and battle pieces, many of which have genuine merit: he is particularly noted for a power of imitating happily the different effects of light at different hours of the day.

L A R G I L I E R E.

A most universal hand. No branch of painting from the dignity of the historic to the buffoonery of the grotesque, was unpractised by him; and considering this universality, with no indifferent success. The effects of his lights, and local colours are remarkable: he had a very happy art of throwing a great relief into his figures; but his
designs

designs are in general incorrect. His finest piece is the portrait of Le Brun.

Le M O I N E.

An artist born without the least traces of a genius for painting; and it is incredible what lengths his perseverance, and continual reflections on the theory and practice of his art, carried him. His manner of designing was never correct, but it was pleasing; and the heads of his women remarkably graceful. His best pictures are, the nativity at S. Roche; a transfiguration; the flight into Egypt; a St. John in the desert at St. Eustace's; the assumption of the Virgin, in fresco, at St. Sulpice; the conversion of St. Paul at St. Germain-des-Prés; the apotheosis of Hercules at Versailles; where are likewise many others.

M A S S A.

A painter of great merit, but his works would be more pleasing, was he more attentive to the bewitching magic of the clear obscure. The grand gallery of Versailles, and the two adjoining saloons, after the designs of Le Brun, are his.

M A C H Y.

Famous for his pieces of architecture: the best are the inside of a church, projected for the Paris of Magdalen. The peristyle of the Louvre, on the side against the Fromenteau street. Two pieces of the destruction by fire of the fair of St. Germans. The square of Lewis XV. Ruins, &c.

MANGLARD.

M A N G L A R D.

There is more merit in the execution of this artist, than in his ideas: His historic, are superior to his sea pieces.

M I L L E R.

Some of this painter's landskips are finely conceived. The Sun setting, on a river, in the hotel de Soubise, is a fine piece.

N A T T I E R.

Had an eye to all the graces of nature, and no small power of drawing them forth on canvass. He exhibited in the Salon of the Louvre, a picture of himself, and his wife in her younger time, with their family around. A subject of heartfelt satisfaction to the old man—but not interesting enough to the world to make the connoisseurs regard it, with the tenderness of humanity, rather than the severity of criticism. The merit of the thought should have attoned for the want of picturesque elegance.

N A T O I R E.

Director of the academy at Rome. His pieces are not improved by his residence in that capital of the fine arts: his airs of the antique are rather unnaturally introduced. He worked upon the history of Psyche in the hôtel de Soubise.

N O N O T T E.

N O N O T T E.

His portraits are in general like; but they have not that innate merit—that independent beauty which makes a picture which one family esteems for personal reasons—valued by the whole world, as a mere painting.

O U D R Y.

A disciple of Largilliere; he painted history, landscapes, and animals, equally well—but none extraordinarily so. He had a great facility of *characterising*, with a few touches. His adoration of the Magi, is his best history piece.

P I E R R E.

His best pieces are those which he performed for the manufactory of the Gobelins. His massacre of the innocents, is a good picture; the figure of a mother stabbing herself for the loss of her child, in particular, is very fine. He did several pieces in the chapel of the parish church of St. Germain-des-Pres—The picture of St. Francis at St. Sulpice—St. Nicholas, at St. Lewis, of the Louvre—The martyrdom of St. Nicholas—The ceiling of the palace royal, representing the apotheosis of Psyche—and the annunciation of the virgin, in the cupola of St. Roch.

D E L A P O R T E.

His fruit-pieces are not without merit; but he is most remarkable for his imitation of bas-reliefs, and his ornaments.

PARROCEL.

P A R R O C E L.

He excelled in battle painting, and so he ought, for he served in the dragoons, in several actions, merely for instruction: There is a fire and enthusiasm in some of his pieces which is very great—The set of pictures which he executed on occasion of the Turkish ambassador's entry, are master pieces of their kind.

P A R R O C E L,

PETER. The disciple of Carlo Marrat. His six pictures of the history of Toby, are his most considerable works—but his master piece is, the infant Jesus crowning the virgin at Marseilles, which is gracefully designed, and elegantly coloured.

P E S N E.

First painter to the king of Prussia: His colours are not equal to his design: Some of his portraits are very fine.

P O I T E R E A U.

Some of this artist's landscapes are very happily imagined; but his colours are not always true to nature.

R I V A L S.

Would have gained a much greater reputation, had he not attached himself so closely to the imitation of Poussin.

RAOUX.

R A O U X.

An imitator of nature in detail, rather than of the sublime and beautiful; but his Pygmalion, and his four ages, have no inconsiderable merit.

R Y C A U D.

Painted in the Flemish stile: His best pieces are, the presentation of Jesus in the cabinet of Luxemburg. St. Peter, and St. Paul. St. Andrew in the academy. The portraits of Mignard and Desjardins; and a vast quantity of other portraits.

R E S T O U T.

An artist of very great merit. His Orpheus descending into hell for Eurydice, is a fine piece. The feast of king Ahasuerus is well designed, but the colouring is not equal. Esther approaching the throne of Ahasuerus, in design, picturesque harmony, and a happy assemblage of the clear obscure, has very great merit. Besides these, he painted St. Paul recovering his sight, at St. Germain-des-Pres—Two pieces in the refectory of St. Denis—The baptism of St. John, for the Gobelins—Four pictures of the decoration of the grand altar of St. Victor, in the antient parish church of Versailles—Our Saviour giving the keys to St. Peter—The repose in Egypt—A set of pieces representing the arts; these three last articles for the Gobelins.

ROSALBA.

R O S A L B A.

At present better known than any of the preceding: What pity that her pieces should not be everlasting! The harmonious delicacy of her touch is not imitation, it is nature itself: The finest piece in crayons, that ever issued from mortal hands, is the Venus in M. Pompadour's collection. The piece she drew for her reception into the French academy, was a woman holding a crown of laurel, most elegantly done. Deprived of the liberty to study nature naked as men do—one ought not to expect of female artists an extensive knowledge of the arts, to which that study is indispensably necessary—Rosalba being attach'd to crayons and miniatures, carried them to so high a degree of merit, that even the most celebrated men in that way have never surpassed her, nor very few equalled her—extreme correctness, and profound knowledge of design, not being so absolutely essential in those kinds as in history, she has attained the end she proposed by the beauty of her colours. The purity and freshness of the tones which she had skill to employ in her colours, are admirable, and the fine facility, as well as the largeness of her manner, equal the greatest masters.

R O S L I N.

His portraits have great merit; the airs of his heads, the fine taste of his draperies, the correctness of his designs, the harmony of the whole, and the agreeable likeness he generally takes, all conspire to render his pieces valuable. Among

* Cochin's Voyage d'Italie, vol. 3. p. 160.

others,

others, the duke de Praslin, the baron de Scheffer, the abbe de Clairvault, the countess of Egmont, and the count Kernicheuw, are worthy of observation.

S E R R E.

He studied at Rome. He caught his ideas with wonderful quickness, and executed them with no less expedition. At fifteen years of age he painted the martyrdom of St. Peter, for the church of the Dominicans at Marfeilles. He would have made a great painter, had he not worked so fast: It must be the conceptions of a first rate genius, to make the world overlook a faulty execution.

S U B L E Y R A S.

Studied at Rome; where he executed his St. Basil, for St. Peter's church, one of his best pieces. He painted a great number of portraits also at Rome, which have merit.

S Y L V E S T R E.

An artist of great merit. His poetical creation of man gained him a seat in the academy. His St. Peter is a good piece; but most of his works are in Dresden; the king of Poland employed him several years, made him director of his academy, and honoured him with letters of nobility.

L E S U E U R.

A name propitious to a painter; but in this instance it reminds one of a great man, who lives
not

not in the works of the present artist. Some of his pieces are however ingenious and pleasing: His colours are strong, but agreeable.

SERVANDONI.

His talent is for decorations; in which path he is excellent. His best works are his decorations, representing St. Peter's of Rome. The descent of Aeneas into hell. The enchanted forest; and The triumph of conjugal love.

TROY.

His portraits are esteemed for colour, harmony, and fine finishing. His own portrait, in the gallery at Florence, is his best piece.

TROY.

His son: He studied at Rome, but he was incorrect; nevertheless he had a brilliancy of composition, and characteristic expression, that made amends for the defect. Great numbers of his pieces are in convents at Paris.

TREMOLIERE.

His best pieces are in the hotel de Soubise: The graces presiding at the education of love, and Minerva teaching a nymph to weave rapistery, are both good pieces; but the subject of the first is finer than the execution. His Sincerity, accompanied by three genius's, is not excellent.

TOUR.

An ingenious artist, who confines himself chiefly to portraits. The best known are, the Dauphin
O and

and Dauphiness, the duke of Berry, the count of Provence, prince Clement, and the princess Christina of Saxony. The likeness of that of M. le Moine the sculptor, perhaps, never was exceeded.

following: The graces captivated by love; in this piece the beautiful freshness of the colours, the mildness of his touch, and the strength of his ex-

JOHN BAPTIST. His style is elegant and graceful. His best pieces are, St. Peter delivered from prison, at the abbey of St. Germain-des-pres. Our Saviour's entry into Jerusalem, at St. Martin's in the fields. Diana and Endymion, at the academy. The portraits of king Stanislaus, and his queen, &c. &c. &c.

of this picture are very fine, but the groups not happily disposed; nor is there any appearance of

CARLO. He was born at Nice in 1705. He went to Turin with his brother John in 1712, and from thence to Rome in 1714. He learnt from his brother the first elements of design; and by his constantly studying the antique, and the works of the greatest masters, he perfected himself in his art, and laid the foundations of his future fame. He came to Paris with his brother in 1719, and in 1723 gained the academy's first medal for design; in the year following, he carried the first prize for painting; and departed again for Rome in 1727. He returned to Turin in 1732, where he painted many pieces with success for the king of Sardinia; the next year he married Signora Sommis, who was celebrated for singing and knowledge of music, but more celebrated for the private virtues of domestic life. In 1734, he returned to Paris, and the year following was received into the academy. In 1749, he was chosen for the direction of the royal elves. In 1751, he

was

was honoured with the order of St. Michael, and in 1762, named first painter to the king, and died in 1765. The number of his works is very great; among many other excellent pieces, are the following: The graces captivated by love; in this piece the beautiful freshness of the colours, the mildness of his touch, and the strength of his expressions are remarkable. Cupid's military exercise, is very prettily imagined, and happily coloured. The vestal Virgin proving her innocence, has great merit; the figure of Virtue in it is finely designed, and the clear obscurity of the whole, excellent; this piece was in the collection of M. Pompadour. Augustus, shutting the gates of the temple of Janus: the composition and ordonnance of this picture are very fine, but the groups not happily disposed; nor is there any appearance of characteristical expression; but the beautiful harmony of the colours is extremely pleasing. The three graces, a most inimitable piece, whether we consider the airs of the heads, the elegance of the forms, the just beauty of the contours, or the brilliant freshness of the carnations. Excellent as these figures most undoubtedly are, *the soul* is wanting in their countenances; in this respect the ideas of the painter in this piece were cold. Susannah and the two elders, the group of this picture is well disposed, the body of Susannah is elegantly designed, and beautifully coloured; the expressions of her head just, though not of the first excellence; those of the two men, well imagined. The history of St. Gregory, in seven small pieces; in these pictures, the ordonnance, choice and disposition of the groups, the freshness and harmony

M. D. Bardon's essay, read to the academy royal.

of the colours, and happy truth of the expression, is remarkable: that which represents the apotheosis of the Saint, is finely conceived, and has an energy in the expression that is sublime.—The destiny holding the hand of her sister Atropos; this piece is thought, by many, to be the master-piece of Vanloo. The disposition and ordonnance of all the parts are admirable; every expression is lively, sensible, and penetrating, the spectator on beholding it is struck at once with an impassioned sentiment of admiration, which is, of all others, the strongest proof of its merit.—The washing of the feet.—Theseus conquering the Marathonian bull, for the Gobelins.—Four pictures of the Virgin, at the chapel of St. Sulpice.—A grand piece of the dispute of St. Augustine against the Donatists.—The Virgin, and an infant Jesus.—St. Charles Borromeo.—St. Clotilda, queen of France, at prayers, at St. Martin's tomb at Choisy. His enigmatical portrait of the king, has, as a painting, more merit than one would suppose the manner in which it was performed would have allowed.

VAN LOO.
 This picture appears, at first sight, only an assemblage of figures, expressing the several virtues that form a great prince. **MAGNANIMITY** is represented sitting and leaning on one hand, upon the arms of France; she holds in the other a scepter, and a broken javelin, to denote clemency; the diadem on her head expresses the intention of doing good; and the scepter the power of executing it. At her feet is a lion, the symbol of this virtue. Lower is Justice holding the scales in one hand, and in the other a drawn sword; she is leaning on a globe, to signify that justice must be supported by power; the mask on the lion's face, expresses her ability to detect and punish vice; the faces under the lion, denote the increase of strength, resulting from the union of these two virtues; there is also a cornu-copia, shewing that every thing prospers in a state where virtue presides.

Behind

of the colours, and happy turn of the expression, is remarkable: that which represents the apothecaries Michael. Nephew of the preceding, and knight of the order of St. Michael. An artist of con- is thought by many, to be the master-piece of Behind Magnanimity, is Mithras, represented by a warrior holding a bundle of pikes, wrapped up in the colours of a standard, signifying, that persons united under the banner of virtue are invincible. Behind this figure is a pyramid, representing the glory of princes, perpetuated by monuments; at the side of it is a soldier, in the character of a soldier resting on his arms. Heroic Virtue is on the right hand, a warrior, in the figure of Hercules; in one hand a large club leaning on his shoulder, and in the other the golden apples of the Hesperian gardens; emblems of his most famous achievements. Opposite Heroic Virtue, is Prudence, exhibited in the figure of Minerva, the goddess of wisdom, and arts, an olive branch in one hand, over the arms of France, and in the other, one of the lances used in the ancient tournaments; and in the games celebrated in the times of peace; this lance is wreathed round with serpents, denoting prudence. Near Minerva is Generosity, represented in the form of a young girl, her head covered with gauze, ornamented with gold and pearls; her naked arms signify the property of this virtue to divest itself entirely of interest, and to do good without any hopes of return; she rests on the Agis of Minerva, to show that particularly favours the encouragers of the arts and sciences. She is adorned with the ribband of the order of the king, as one of the distinguishing marks of honour, procured for several famous artists we have at present, by the Marquis de Matigny, under Minerva, are the attributes of the Beaux arts; the dial, to denote clemency; the book, to denote wisdom; the laurel wreath, to denote glory; the cornucopia, to denote abundance. All these figures, in the light already considered, compose a picture that would alone do honour to Mr. Vanloo; but this is nothing in comparison to the effect resulting from the whole which viewed through a kind of perspective, whose object glass having several facets, all converging towards the center of the canopy, and uniting the different refractions, so disposes all the figures throughout it, as to contract them into a very small compass, forming one single portrait, which is the

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considerable merit: His historical pieces have genuine merit, and his portraits are elegant and agreeable. His picture of himself, performing the portrait of his father, is finely designed, and

the head of his most Christian majesty, a very striking likeness.

The figure of Justice forms the eye of the king; with the curls nearest the eye, the painter informs us by that, that nothing escapes the attention of the justice of the monarch. Magnanimity composes one part of the eye, the cheek, the ear, and the eyebrow, which express the supreme will; the head of Medusa makes one part of the other eyebrow; it seems to tell us, that the very looks of a just prince terrify guilt, and produce in delinquents that consternation and annihilation, similar to the metamorphosis effected formerly by the sight of the serpents twin'd round the head of Medusa.

Military Virtue gives one part of the nose and the mouth, the mouth is the organ of command. Heroic Virtue gives part of the other cheek, and the corner of the mouth, and compleats the nose and nostrils.

Minerva forms the eye, on the smallest side of the portrait; the eye of this great prince, gives a look of approbation on those who cultivate virtue, the arts, and sciences.

Generosity finishes the eye on the small side, the temple, and one side of the hair. Sculpture, expressed by the head of Apollo, forms the forehead and laurel crown.

The Lion of Magnanimity, forms the other temple, and finishes the forehead; the mule forms the white part of the forehead, and finishes the eyebrow; the manes of the two Lions form the toupee, and the figure of Intrepidity the lightest shades of skin.

It is evident from this description of it, what peculiar skill is required in the combination of two things, so different and foreign to one another, as are, on the one hand, seven or eight figures, accompanied with their allegorical symbols, so well imagined, and on the other, the form of a single head.

We have sometimes seen the power of perspective and dioptrics (to impart an uniformity of figure, to that which appeared at first sight not to have any) exemplified. This does not appear difficult; nothing more is necessary than

and remarkable for a noble simplicity; the ordonnance, colouring, and general effect, excellent.

AMADEUS. An artist of no inconsiderable merit. His preaching of St. Dominicus, before the sovereign Pontiff, and his Thom. Aquinas composing his works from the immediate inspiration of heaven, are his best pieces, and well coloured. What subjects! It is pity a painter that can make such a choice, should ever execute any thing else!

VIVIER N.

His portraits are very remarkable for tracing the characteristical strokes of the minds of those he painted.

VLAUOLLS.

Followed the stile of Paul Veronese, and Tintoret: There are great numbers of his pieces in

to sketch the out-lines through the glass with which we are to view the piece when finished. This produces some kind of unshapen figure, whose form, when viewed at every other point, except a particular one, is difficult to be conceived; but to produce in this manner several figures with regular forms, this appears very difficult, and the difficulty is still increased, when confined to some particular given figures, which are to appear in their proper shapes, when viewed at any point whatever; but to form a portrait which is to be composed of a particular set of determinate figures, who have each their particular likenesses expressed, appears a problem not to be solved; and Mr. Vaulot's success seems to be the only thing that can reconcile such an attempt.

the cabinets of Paris and some at London. His Love surprized in the Elgian fields, and his Solomon turning idolater, in the Luxemburg cabinet, have merit. He was knight of St. Michael.

The history pieces of this lady have no inconsiderable merit: His imagination is lively and his ideas are just. He studied in Italy, where he gained a just stile of design, and afterwards improved it into real elegance and purity. His works are pleasing and characteristical; his presentation, which is at Versailles, and the sickness of Antiochus, are his best pieces.

His imagination is lively and his ideas are original and picturesque. He is a vigorous imitator of the antique; but the simplicity of his figures is so great, that they want motion, and his draperies are faulty. His young woman presenting an offering to the temple of Venus, is however full of the most graceful touches; her attitude is simple, but easy and attracting. The woman coming out of the bath attended by a slave; there reigns on the principal figure, a fine effect of lights, which give a fine brilliancy to the carnations, and the design is extremely correct. His Glyceria, is in the true taste of the antique. His young woman sprinkling a pot of flowers, is very delicate and agreeable. His merchant's wife at her toilette, is copied from a sketch found at Herculaneum, and has merit, the original none. Proserpine, ornamenting with flowers a bunt of Ceres, in the antique stile, is finely designed. Marcus Aurelius's charity to the people, in time of famine, is executed in all the

severity

severity of the antique, and displays very strongly the powers of this master.

Madame de VERNET.

The history pieces of this lady, have no inconsiderable merit: Her imagination is warm and active, and her colours lively and pleasing.

I make no scruple of asserting that this artist is the first painter in France. His landscapes are justly true to nature, and almost superior to his art. His imagination is lively, and his ideas original and picturesque. The talent of expression lives in every stroke of his pencil. His designs are bold, animated and correct, his colours melt into harmony itself; his management of lights, is wonderfully elegant, throwing them into the warmest effects of the clear oblique—add to this, that general spirit of elegance which breathes over the whole; and some idea may be formed of this painter's excellency: I have seen many of his pieces which are superior to numbers of Claud himself. M. Vernet indeed, is one of the few modern painters whose works an age hence will be sought for with the utmost eagerness. Among a thousand other unimicable pieces, remark his set of portraits of France, done for the king. His four parts of the day, for the Dauphin, particularly *night*, the moon-shine on the water is nature itself. His *Shepherds of the Alps*, and two sea pieces from fancy, for M. Pompadour.

VENET.

V E N E V A U L T.

His miniatures are well coloured, nor is the design contemptible. His miniature of an abbee giving a lecture to a pretty young girl, is a most inimitable piece; the contrast of the two physiognomies, the characteristical expression, and the brilliancy of the colouring, are extremely fine.

If in any of the arts the French have been and are superior to the rest of Europe, it most undoubtedly is in that of engraving. The works of the French engravers are a lasting honour to the nation; for in this walk of genius, no other country has produced such great men—not in such abundance. I much question whether all the works of every other people in Europe collected, would near equal those of the French artists alone. The engravers of the age of Lewis the XIV. which I reckon in this article (as I have done in the preceding) to extend to about the year 1720, are too well known to require any naming them. But I shall lay before you a list of the principal ones that have flourished since.

A U D R A N,

JOHN. Is principally known by the rape of the Sabines, after Poussin, the fishing, the resurrection of Lazarus, after Jouvenet, the gallery of Luxembourg, and the battles of Alexander, in small—most excellent pieces.

AUDRAN.

A U N A N I V

Now living. His expressions have merit. His portrait of Pope Clement XIII. from a medal, is a fine piece.

A U B I N.

Remarkably delicate in some of his touches. One of his finest works is the portrait of Rameau, from the statue of Caffieri.

A L I A M E T.

An artist of merit. Some of his works, which give an idea of his manner, are to be met with in the grand edition of La Fontaine. His prints after M. Mercey are good.

A N D O U A R T.

He engraves many pieces of the inferior sort, but they are performed naturally. His English man of war, wind-bound on the coast, and his sun setting on the sea, after S. Joseph, are well executed.

B E A U V A R E L T.

An artist of great merit. His rape of the Sabines, and of Europa, the triumph of Galatea, and the judgment of Paris, after Luca Jordano, are finely executed.

B I N E T.

Clerc, have merit. He was a good painter in enamel.

B I N E T.

The Return, after M^r Grouze, is one of his best pieces.

His works have real and intrinsic merit; full of spirit, correctness, and harmony. His principal works are, Rebecca, St. Basil; the origin of fire. Has an happy expression in engraving landscapes and sea pieces. His set of prints, after Vernet, in conjunction with M^r Cochin, are very finely executed, particularly Antiques and Genre. His pieces in the collection entitled, Le cabinet de — Crozat, have merit. His village recompence, from Claud Lorrain, is admirable. His other best pieces are, Flemish feasts after Berghen, Teniers and Wouvermans. All the feasts of Strasbourg, on occasion of the king's recovery. Ditto of Havre-de-Grace. The works of Teniers.

B A L L E C H O U.

His portrait of the king of Poland, in the first volume of the Dresden collection of prints, is finely executed.

C H A B E R E A U.

His John Baptist after Raphael, and his portraits of the cardinals Fleury and Polignac, after Rigaud, and in the Crozat collection, are his best pieces.

C H A T A I L L O N.

His destiny of Mary of Medicis, after Rubens, and part of the conquests of Lewis XIV. after Le Clerc,

Clerc, have merit. He was a good painter in enamel.

His works have real and intrinsic merit; full of spirit, correctness, and harmony. His principal works are, Rebecca, St. Basil; the origin of fire, from *Le Moine*. Jacob and Laban, from *Restout*. The village wedding, after *Watteau*. The prints for the *Lutrin*. Many upon occasion of the dauphin's marriage, and the general collection of the gallery of Versailles. He died in 1754.

Now living: An artist blessed with a most happy execution, most of his pieces are remarkable for a just representation of his master's design, and almost transfusing the beauty of colours into the clear obscure of his prints: his pieces after *Vernet*, are extremely fine; his ornaments are in general superior to most; and his portrait of *M. Chauvelin*, equal to the reputation of his graver—many of his small pieces are wonderfully elegant.

CHARBENTIER.

His manner is now and elegant: *Perseus and Andromeda*, after *Vanpo*; the decollation of *St. John*, after *Guerchino*; and the equestrian statue of *Lewis XV.* are fine.

M. J. CIATRA SH

One of the finest engravers at this time in France. His *Venus going into the bath*, cleaning on

on a female attendant, after le Moyne, is a most excellent piece; the figure of Venus is admirably touched: Of all *the naked* that is to be met with in engraving, I know none more natural than this. The Venus of the English artist, Mr. Strange, is fine and delicate, but the flesh is not nature; whereas M. Car's seems, as if it would yield to the touch; every point of imitation is so happily hit off. The arms—the breasts, and the parts between the breasts, and the waist, are inimitably expressed: the whole print, indeed, is a master-piece. The companion, Perseus and Andromeda, after the same master, is fine, though not equal to the Venus, but the arms and hands, and the general effect of lights and shades are fine. His portrait of the celebrated actress M. Clairon, has great merit. His annunciation, after le Moine, and his rape of Europa, are fine.—He published four volumes in folio, of palaces in France and Italy, by Sylvestre; and two volumes folio of prints, by Sadeler, containing 500.

C. H. E. VILLE T.

His young coquet, after Raoulx, and the dangerous beauty, after Santerre, are well executed, particularly the latter.

C. H. E. N. U.

The agreeable solitude, and the amorous fisherman, after Boucher, are lively and pleasing.

C. O. U. L. E. T.

Mademoiselle. The Neapolitan, fishermen, the happy passage, and the departure of the challop,

challoup, after Vernet, are all agreeably engraved.

C O U S I N E T,

Madame. Her tempest, and calm, after Vernet, have genuine merit.

D R E V E T.

PETER. An excellent engraver of portraits; those of Philip V. of Spain, the dutoches of Nemours, the duke of Villars, and Boileau, are his best works.

D R E V E T.

Son of the preceding, but greatly surpassed him; the liveliness, and justness of his expressions, are very great. The presentation to the temple, after Boullongue, and the portrait of Bouffet, are very fine. He never overlooked a single beauty of his originals.

D E S P L A C E S.

He joined a great excellency of clean obscure to a correctness of design. His best pieces are, the descent from the cross, after Jouvenet. St. Bruno, and the elevation to the cross. Fire and water, after Boullongue. The rape of Helen, after Guido; and Venus coming to Vulcan, from Jouvenet; this last piece is very faulty, in the drapery of Venus, as it entirely hides the naked beneath it. The soldier holding up a dagger at Altyanax, in the arms of Andromache, after Jouvenet, is his master-piece. The expressions in this

this print, are strong and manly; the figure of the soldier is nobly done, his arms, hands, and feet, extremely fine. The airs of the heads, attitudes, and drapery—masterly.—In every countenance, and in all parts of the naked that appears, the engraver's expressive touch merits the highest praise. Died in 1749.

DESPLACES.

Living. The pieces he engraved for the cabinet de Crozat, have merit.

DUPUI.

His best pieces are, the passage of the Rhine, after Le Brun. Earth, and air, after Boullongne. The marriage of the Virgin, after Carlo Vanloo. He was an excellent engraver.

DORIGNI,

Nicholas. Studied in Italy, and joined to a great harmony of lights and shades, the most correct design. His finest pieces are, the bark of Lanfranco. The St. Petronilla of Guerchine. The descent from the cross, after Volterra. The transfiguration, after Raphael; and the death of St. Sebastian, after Dominichino. There is a softness in the last print, unusual with this great man. His cartoons are not equal to these pieces.

DUCHANGE.

His Io, Leda and Danae, after Correggio, are fine; but not equal to the wonders of the painter. M. Dan-

don *pretends that, he *had the courage* to break these plates because of their indecency! and then executed, the chasing the money changers from the temple, and the supper of the Pharisee.—This (I speak only in the picturesque way) was a change of subject with a vengeance! Besides these he did many pieces of the Luxembourg gallery, and that of Palais Royal, and in the cabinet de Crozat.

D E C H U Y.

Has engraved a great number of pieces—many of which have *no* inconsiderable merit. A young man, after M. Aved's Vandyke. An old man's head, from Rembrandt, in his happiest stile. A battle, after Parrocel the father. A landscape, after Rembrandt. A moon shine, from Vernet. The portrait of l'ami-des-hommes, of Aved. Toby recovering his sight, after Rembrandt, a very fine picture in the collection of the Marquis de Voyer. The new married couple, after Rembrandt. Rembrandt's picture, after himself, and the portrait of Tintoretto; these are his best works.

D E L A U N A Y.

His Leda, and Endymion, both from Pierre, are fine pieces.

D A U L L E.

The vengeance of Latona, after Jouvenet. Salmacis, and Hermaphroditus, after de Bray. The bathers surprized, and the triumph of Venus,

Essai sur la Sculpture, p. 224.

are proofs of his taste in choosing, and the elegance of his hand in executing. His two sea pieces, after Vernet, are fine.

D U R E T,

His four pieces, after Lantara, entituled, The happy bather—The amorous fisherman—The amorous shepherd, and The angry rencontre, are well performed.

E M P E R E U R.

The triumph of Silenus, after Vanloo, and Auróra and Tithonus, after Pierre, are good pieces, but the bathers, after Vanloo, is his finest performance. The rape of Europa, after Pierre, is well engraved, in respect of softness—for instance, the bosom of Europa—and the general brilliancy is agreeable—but there is a strange abruptness in the lights and shades; all the figures are incorrect in the out-line, and the group is very disagreeable, but that is the fault of the painter. His Pyramus and Thisbe, from Natoire, is fine.

E P I C I E.

His pieces in the work, entituled, Cabinet de Crozat, are very fine; and extremely agreeable in the delicacy, for which this engraver is remarkable. His portraits are most happily performed; those of the comptroller general Orry, and Boulougue the painter, are extremely good. His finest history piece, is the Bashaw, having the picture of his mistress taken after Carlo Vanloo, and an elegant

elegant print it is. The airs and expression of the heads are wonderfully fine, and engraved in the most just and masterly stile; examine particularly the painter's, the Bashaw's, the figure standing by the canvass, and the two boys behind; nothing can be better expressed—That of the woman, is not so happy. The painter's countenance is finely touched; his whole figure indeed is boldly designed, and full of relief. The clear obscure, excellent; the lights and shades being so agreeably managed, as to give an unusual brilliancy to the whole piece.

FESSARD.

The figures which he engraved for the elegant edition of *La Fontaine*, in 8vo. are executed with that taste and correctness which this master displays in most of his works. His engravings of M. Dandre Bardon's principles of design, are well executed.—And his light of the world, and *Venus*, after Boucher, finely touched.

FIQUET.

An artist of uncommon merit—his truth of expression, and agreeable imitation of the clear obscure, are seldom exceeded: He is the engraver of a great number of pieces. The portraits of *La Fontaine*, and M. Eifen, in the Amsterdam edition of the tales, will give an idea of his merit. Those of *Corneille*, *Voltaire*, J. B. *Rouffeau*, *madame de Maintenon*, are admirable.

FLODING.

His engravings are expressive, and some of them agreeable. The birth of the *Virgin*, after

Monnet. A battle from la Rue. A body of guards, and Apollo and Daphne, both after Boucher, are his best pieces.

F L I P A R T.

His portrait of Greuze, from the painting by himself; and his Æneas, and Venus, after Natoire, have undoubted merit.

G A I L L A R D.

Jupiter, and the nymph Calisto, after Boucher, is well engraved; but his finest piece is Aminta and Sylvia, from the same painter, and excellently finished. His Sparrow tamed, after the same, is one of the most delicate, pleasing pieces of the kind in the world.

G U A Y.

His small pieces are very elegant; but more pleasing in the brilliancy of their lights and shades, than correct in the design.

G A L I M A R D.

An ingenious artist. His pieces are correctly engraved, nor is his manner inelegant.

L E M I R A.

His works are finely touched, and have that just *distinctness*, which gives a full relief to every figure. His engravings for the fine 8vo. edition of la Fontaine, are extremely elegant.

L E N G U E I L.

I know none of his works that exceed his share of the above mentioned edition of la Fontaine.

L A R M E S S I N.

His pieces in the cabinet de Crozat have great merit. Those after Lancret, are good. Lewis XV.'s horse, after J. B. Vanloo, and C. Parrocel is fine.

M O Y R E A U.

His escort of the carriages, after Cassanova, has merit. His pieces, after Wouvermans, are correctly engraved, but none of his works have any great elegance of touch.

M I G E R.

His hermit without care, after Vien, is well engraved.

Le M I R E.

An artist whose works are justly admired for chastity of drawing, and that pleasing brilliancy which gives an elegance to the tout-ensemble. His mount Vesuvius, and the setting sun, after la Croix, are extremely well touched.

M A G N Y.

The pieces which he published under the title of The new art of design, have merit; but the stile is not agreeable. The best are, The head

after Boucher. A little academy, from C. Vanloo. A little head, from Boucher. A great one, from the same. Hercules. A head, from Gonord. A woman, from Cochin. A grand academy, from C. Vanloo. Another after Cochin. A small head in the stile of Watteau. Six small ones of women, from the same.

Le M A I R E.

His prints of universal history, after the greatest masters, have merit.

M O I T T E.

His Venus on the waves, after Boucher, is delicate, elegant, and pleasing.

M A R I E T T E.

St. Peter delivered from prison, after Domichino, and the saving Moses, after Poussin, are his best pieces. His gems are but indifferent.

O Z A N N E.

His marine pieces are pretty.

P H I L I P A R T.

His best works the prints he engraved for the 8vo. edition of la Fontaine.

P O I L L Y.

J. B.—The gallery of St. Cloud, after Mignard, and the Susannah of Coypel, are his best pieces.

P I C A R T.

A well known engraver; not from his merit, but the infinity of pieces which he did in Holland.

S I M O N E A U.

Best known from his magnificent print of Franche-Comté re-conquered. His portrait of the dutchess of Orleans, after Rigaud, and his journey of Mary of Medicis, from Rubens, are reckoned among his best pieces.

S U R R U G U E.

His finest works are, the sleeping Venus, from Watteau. Two Philosophers, after Rembrandt, and Sacrifice of Isaac, after And. del Sarto.

T A R D I E U.

Well known by his stile of engraving. He managed adroitly enough a mixture of light hatches, and regular cuts, for giving a characteristical expression to different objects. It was by the variety and opposition of his working, that he threw a spirit into his works. His principal pieces are, the Samaritan, and Noli me tangere, after Bertin. A crucifixion, from J. Parrocel. The parting of Hector and Andromache, and the anger of Achilles, from Coypel. He died in 1749.

T A R D I E U.

Living. His portrait of Oudry, in the magnificent edition of the fables of la Fontaine, after Largiliere, is very fine. And his shepherd and shepherdess, from St. Aubin, has merit. His pieces in the Cabinet de Crozat, are well known.

T H O M A S S I N.

Engraved in a particular, but not an agreeable stile. His best pieces are, the Visitation of the Virgin, from Jouvenet. Coriolanus, from la Fosse. And the melancholy of Fetti. Among his works, after Watteau, the return from the Ball, is the most agreeable.

V E R M O N T.

Many of his pictures for the Capuchins of Marais, are good. The annunciation of St. Mederic, and St. John in the desert, are his best.

V A L L E E. V E R M E U L E N.

Their pieces in the Cabinet de Crozat, are some of them fine.

Z I N N G.

His setting moon, after Vandernéer, is delicate and agreeable.

* * * *

Having in this manner laid before you a concise view of the *fine arts* in France, as they adorn the

the age of Lewis XV., I shall conclude this letter with a few observations on what the French call their *arts agréables*. At the head of these, comes what the French think *so* magnificent—and foreigners *so* mean, their Opera: I should trespass upon your time, for a few pages on this subject, had not Rousseau given *so* lively, as well as *so* true an account of it—and had not it been for some time agreed, by those who agree in nothing else, that the French have *no music*. Their stile, and taste, in this charming art, is *toute contraire* to harmony and nature.

As to their Theatres, I say nothing of the secondary ones, but confine myself to that on which they found the reputation of their nation, where the pieces composed by their greatest poets are regularly acted. It is impossible for any one to be precisely just, in any theatrical criticism, who is not as perfect a master of the language, as the natives themselves: Of all other circumstances of intercourse between people of different languages, none requires that exact and minute knowledge of them equal to the Theatre. The acting on the French stage, appears to foreigners too formal and stiff, and to want that easy flexible characteristic action, which is not *so* much an imitation as nature itself—The speech of the performers, seems far removed from nature, their prodigious rapidity of pronunciation is hurtful to *the natural* in the representation—but it must be confessed that this last objection, it is probable, is chiefly owing to a want of a quick and lively knowledge of the language. If we consider the nature of the French theatrical productions, the performers have certainly great merit, for their *manner* of acting is nearly allied to the spirit of the pieces—Thus it was found when M. de Voltaire brought several of his celebrated

tragedies on the stage, in which were many sudden starts of nature and passion, that some of the performers entered into the spirit of those pieces, and played them true to nature : None in these particulars ever equalled Mademoiselle Clairon, whose performance of Zulime was so naturally great—whenever she came to that passage in which she flies at Ramire with so rapid a speech, the applause she ever met with, shows that the audience had a taste for the merit of such strokes.

Ram. —Mais en moi vous ne verriez qu'un traître,

Si tout prêt à partir je cachois à vos yeux,
Un obstacle fatal, opposé par les cieux.

Zul. Un obstacle ! [avec une surprise mêlée de terreur.

Ram. Une loi formidable, éternelle.

Zul. Vous m'arrachez le cœur ! achevez. Quelle est elle ?

The want of this actress upon their stage has been severely felt since she left it—none remaining having that penetrating ability to see into the soul of a part, and cloath themselves in its nature. The principal actors at present on their stage are, among the men, Le Kain, Molé, Brizard, Clairval, Caillot, Bellecour, and Aufresne ; and among the women, Favart, Desglands, Dumefnil, Preville, Dubois, and Doligni.

The taste of the nation in their theatrical pieces, is a full justification for any want of spirit which may appear in the performers, since those characters are very rarely to be met with in theatrical compositions that may be made great merely by the representation. The poet must assist—whereas all the tameness, and tedious barangues,

we condemn on the French stage, is the composition—it is the taste of the nation. They require a most ridiculous attention to critical unities, and rules sufficient in number to cramp the boldest genius, and smother the most poetic flame. They totally forget that genius is antecedent to, and above all rules—that rules were taken from the works of genius—not the works of genius composed in consequence of rules—and consequently that all the orders of criticism are of no authority with any, but poets who have not the soul to strike out a path of their own. Accordingly, if we look through the whole range of poetry, those men have approached nearest to *nature*, who disdained all *rules*—almost all the French tragedies are full of debate, and monstrous long harangues; strangely languid, and almost void of action; or, in other words, the whole is removed as far from nature as the critics could possibly devise. Add to every thing else, their being all in rhyme! a circumstance alone sufficient to cramp every excellence.—Their comedies have greatly more merit—more lively, free, and closer imitations of life and manners; but most of those the present age has produced, are too much deficient in that genuine *originality* of character, which stamps supreme excellency on theatrical pieces.

LETTER VIII.

HAVING given you, in the preceding letter, as complete an account of the present state of the fine arts in France as my materials would allow, with a catalogue of their best artists, and works, I shall now attempt, in the same manner, to lay before you the state of literature in the same kingdom—to present you with the names and works of the best French authors of the present age, with a few short remarks, and give you, in as small a compass as possible, the clearest idea of the subject that can be gained from any general view, and without turning over an infinite multitude of volumes. You will from hence see the works of authors whose names are well known to you—and in many instances, works which are not generally known to belong to them—and in others, correcter and newer accounts, than, I flatter myself, are to be met with in any work hitherto published. But I should premise, that I do not mean to insert *all* the present French authors, that would be too voluminous a task; but I shall omit none that are worthy of attention. I should likewise inform you, that I found this letter, on *La France Litteraire*, but with additions too numerous to specify each in particular.

A B B E S.

The memoirs which he read to the academy of Sciences at Béziers, on the method of preserving corn at harvest, are judicious, and experimental.

A L E M B E R T.

One of the principal of the present French authors; his works are of several kinds, comprehending both science, and polite literature, and all the subjects he has treated, are the better for his attention.

1. *Traité de Dynamique*, 4to. 1743.
2. *Traité de l'Equilibre du mouvement des fluides*, pour servir de suite au *Traité de Dynamique*, 4to. 1744.
3. *Réflexions sur la cause générale des Vents*, 4to. 1746. This essay carried the prize of the Berlin academy of sciences, and is truly curious and philosophical.
4. *Recherches sur la précession des equinoxes, & sur la mutation de l'axe de la Terre dans le systéme Newtonien*, 4to. 1748.
5. *Théorie de la résistance des fluides*, 4to. 1752.
6. *Elémens de Musique suivant les principes de M. Rameau*, 8vo. 1752.
7. The prefaces and mathematical articles in *Encyclopoedia*, 1752.
8. *Recherches sur differens points importans du systéme du monde*, 2 vol. 4to. 1754.
9. He is the editor of the Abbé Terrasson's *philosophie applicable à tous les objets de l'esprit & de la raison*, 2 vol. 12mo. 1754.
10. *Discours*

10. Discourse, pronounced the day of his reception into the French academy, 4to. 1755.
11. Mélanges de littérature, d'histoire & de philosophie, 4 vol. 12mo. 1760. This work is a very valuable miscellany, it contains among other pieces, his translations of select passages from Tacitus, admirably performed. His elements of philosophy, his abuse of criticism, in matters of religion, containing many just and lively remarks. His essay on Taste. His liberty and music, in which he entirely agrees with Rousseau, that the French have none. His essay on the society of men of letters, on the great, &c. which is a very entertaining and ingenious piece. His reflections on Oratory; and his letter to Rousseau.
12. Réflexions sur l'application du calcul des probabilités à l'Inoculation de la petite Vérole, 12mo. 1760.
13. Elémens de Musique, 4to. 1762.
14. Réponse à une lettre de M. Rameau, 1762.
15. Destruction des Jesuites, 1765.

A L L E T Z.

Amongst a great number of other works, he is the author of the following, which are useful.

1. La connoissance des Poètes latins, 12mo. 2 vols.
2. Petit trésor de la belle latinité puisé dans les meilleurs auteurs, 12mo. 1755.
3. Le Bon Jardinier Almanach, 1755.
4. L'Histoire des Singes & autres animaux curieux, 12mo. 1752.

5. Victoires

5. Victoires mémorables des François, 12mo.
2 vol. 1754.

Besides some theatrical pieces.

A M B O U R N E Y.

A merchant at Rouen. Has rendered himself remarkable by his excellent experiments, and discoveries in the culture and use of Madder. See his pieces in the Deliberations et Mémoires de la Société Royal de Rouen.

A N T O N I N I.

This author's works are not so well known in other parts of Europe, besides France, as they deserve. He is correct, and in many of his works very useful. The following are his best pieces.

1. Examen de l'Essai sur la Poésie épique de M. de Voltaire.
 2. Le Prose e Rime di Giovanni della Caza, 8vo. 1727.
 3. Italia liberata da Goti di Gian, G. Trissino riveduta, 8vo. 1729. 3 vols.
 4. Rime de piu illustri Poeti, 12mo. 2 vols. 1731.
 5. Mémoires de Paris, 12mo. 2 vols. 1749.
 6. La Gierusalemme liberata di T. Tasso riveduta, 2 vols. 12mo. 1744.
 7. Aminta favola boscareccia di T. Tasso riveduta, 12mo. 1745.
 8. Orlando Furioso, de le Ariosto riveduta, 4 vol. 12mo. 1746.
 9. Il Pastor Fido riveduta è corretta, 8vo. 1753.
- Besides a French grammar, Italian grammar, and an Italian, Latin, and French dictionary.

ARCHAM-

ARCHAMBAUT,

Mademoiselle. Among other pieces, this lady is the author of an agreeable one, entituled Dissertation sur la question: Lequel de l'homme ou de la femme est plus capable de constance, ou la cause des dames soutenue, 12mo. 1750.

ARGENS,

Marquis d'. He is a voluminous, pleasing, voluptuous writer, in some of his works, elegant and instructive.

1. Mémoires des Marquis d'Argens, 2 vols 12mo. 1736.
2. Le Philosophie solitaire, ou mémoires du marquis de Mirmon, 12mo. 1736.
3. Mémoires du marquis de Vaudreuil, 12mo. 1736.
4. Mémoires de la Comtesse de Mirol, 12mo. 1736.
5. Le Mentor Cavalier, 12mo. 1736.
6. Mémoires de mademoiselle de Mainville, 12mo. 1736.
7. Mémoires du Comte de Vaxere ou le faux Rabin, 12mo. 1737.
8. Avantures de Rosaline, 12mo.
9. Mémoires secrets de la République de lettres, 12mo. 1737.
10. Anecdotes historiques, galantes, & littéraires, du tems présent, 12mo. 1737.
11. Lettres d'un Sauvage dépaillé à son correspondant en Amérique, 8vo. 1738.
12. Anecdotes Venitiennes & Turques, ou nouveaux mémoires du comte Bonneval, sous le nom de Mirone, 2 vols. 8vo. 1740.
13. Avan-

13. *Avantures de la duchesse de Vanjour sous le même nom*, 3 vols. 8vo. 1741.
14. *Lettres Juives*, 8vo. 6 vols. 1738.
15. *Lettres Chinoises*, 5 vols. 8vo. 1739.
16. *Lectures amusantes ou délassement de l'esprit*, 2 vols. 12mo. 1739.
17. *Lettres Cabalistiques*, 6 vols. 8vo. 1741.
18. *Mémoires de Meilcourt*, 12mo. 1739.
19. *La Philosophie du bon sens*, 2 vols. 12mo. 1740, reprinted at Dresden in 1754, 2 vols. 8vo.
20. *Réflexions historiques & critiques sur le goût, & sur les ouvrages des principaux auteurs*, 12mo. 1743.
21. *Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de l'esprit & du coeur*, 2 vols. 12mo. 1745.
22. *Mémoires du chevalier de*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1745.
23. *Lettres Philosophiques & critiques, par le marquis d'Argens & mademoiselle Cochois*, 12mo. 1746.
24. *Songes Philosophiques*, 12mo. 1746.
25. *Lettres morales & critiques sur les differents états & les diverses occupations des hommes*, 12mo. 1747.
26. *Les enchainemens de l'amour & de la fortune*, 12mo. 1748.
27. *Avantures de Bella*, 12mo. 1751.
28. *Réflexions critiques sur les écoles de Peinture*, 12mo. 1752. This is an ingenious work, but too full of paradoxes. I will give you his critique on Vandyke as it is remarkable, and the book has never been translated.

"We have often demanded, and are every day demanding, who is the greatest painter? For myself, I believe, without comparison, that it is Vandyke. My love for this great man is not

founded upon any prejudice. I am neither his countryman, nor his cotemporary; it is therefore meerly his talents which determine me to place him above all the Italian, French, and Flemish painters. I am sensible there may be found some painter of each of those three nations, who are more excellent in particular parts of painting, than Vandyke; but then such painter offends in many others; but Vandyke possesses all the parts of painting in a very high degree: for example; Raphael designed with more elegance, and correctness, than Vandyke; he had a vaster genius; but Vandyke designed in a very good taste. M. de Piles says, that the design of his heads and hands, is of the last perfection; and speaking of his manner of designing figures, he made no difficulty of asserting that his historical pieces hold a rank among those of the first class of painters in the esteem of connoisseurs. In respect of genius, if Vandyke's was not so sublime as Raphael's, it was nevertheless very extensive; and he made very great compositions, in an admirable taste. We see this in a considerable number of his pictures with which the churches in the low countries are enriched; and above all in the great work which he painted for the grand altar of the Jesuits at Anvers; this picture represents the assumption of the Virgin, and contains more than twenty-four figures; and is beyond contradiction the finest in the world. It is there we see how much Vandyke excells Raphael, for colour, pencil, clear obscure, force, truth of detail in the heads, freshness of carnation, and beauty of landscape.

“ Titian's portraits are very fine; but Vandyke painted some which yield not to the other's: Besides the hands of those of the Fleming are much better designed, than those of the Italian, of a
much

much finer character, and the folds of his draperies much better disposed.

“ The historical pieces of the best Venetian painters, are perfectly coloured ; but they offend all in point of design, and costume. The fine historical pictures of Vandyke are exempt from these defects ; and the Flemings, with reason, call Vandyke *Rubens purified*. In fine, I know of no painter who has assembled all the great parts of painting, equally with Vandyke in his excellent works (for we must allow he has not always performed with the same spirit) for those in which he employed all his talents are without contradiction superior to the pictures of other painters, since they are absolutely exempt from all the defects which we find in their pictures. Almost all the painters think what I here maintain ; but they dare not openly avow it, because they fear the wounding prejudices contrary to their sentiments. They resemble certain modern critics who have nothing to oppose to the extravagant admirers of the ancients, not daring to rank Moliere above Aristophanes, nor Racine with Euripides.”

29. Ocellus Lucanus, in greek and french, 12mo.
1762.

A complete edition of the Marquis's works, in 33 volumes, was lately published at Berlin.

A R N A U D.

His poetry has merit, but in no superior degree. His principal pieces are,

1. Les dégoûts du Théâtre, 1745.
2. Les époux malheureux, 4 vols. 1745.
3. Thérèse, 2 vols. 1746.

Q 2

4. Les

4. Les avantages des beaux arts, 1750.
5. La mort du marechal Saxe, poeme, 1750.
6. Les lamentations de Jérémie, odes sacrés, 1752. Most wretched odes!
7. Elvire, poeme, 1754.
8. Edition of Voltaire's works, in 8 vols. 8vo. 1749.
9. Les amans malheureux, ou le comte de Comminge, drame, 1765. In this piece is an imitation of the scene in Shakespear's Richard III. where he bursts from his sleep, in rhyme—What an idea must the French entertain of Shakespear's genius in such a translation!
10. A la Nation, poeme, 1762.
A most virulent abuse of the English nation; take the following as a specimen:

Hommes cruels, eh quoi ! le flambeau de la
guerre

Dévorera toujours la malheureux teire ?

Tigres de sang nourris, vos Lokes, vos Newtons,
Ne vous on pas dicté ces barbares leçons !

Ecoutez ces beaux-arts qui pleurent sur vos
ames ;

Pour votre ile sauvage ils n'auroient plus de
charmes !

C'est d'eux que s'élevoit votre éclat immortel :

Ils vous avoient absous des forfaits de Cromwel.

Anglois, nous connoissons la gloire véritable :

Partageons les rameaux de son laurier durable :

S'il nous faut des combats, disputons-nous l'hon-
neur

Des humains consolés d'affurer le bonheur ;

Du sordide intérêt rejettons les amorces ;

Affocions nos goûts, nos lumières, nos forces,

Pour

Pour donner aux mortels des exemples brillans
Du pouvoir des vertus, des arts, & des talens.

M. Arnaud is doubtless very obliging to the English nation—but he does not know how to spell Mr. Locke's name.

11. La France sauvée, poeme.

A R G E N V I L L E.

A very ingenious man—whose labours have all been directed to useful enquiries; his works are all valuable.

1. La Théorie & la pratique du Jardinage, 4to. 1713 and 1747.
2. La Lithologie & la Conchyliologie, 4to. 1742.
3. Enumerationis fossilium quæ in omnibus Gallicæ provinciis reperiuntur tentamina, 12mo. 1751.
4. He is the author of the articles *d'hydrographie*, and *de Jardinage*, in the Encyclopædia.
5. L'Oryctologie, 4to. 1755.
6. Abrégé de la vie des plus fameux peintres, 4to, 3 vols. 1745. Their portraits engraved. 4 vols. 8vo. 1762.—This work is by far the best lives of the painters, and considering the great extent of such a work is executed with accuracy and judgment. Mr. Horace Walpole's critical mention of it in his Anecdotes of painting, does by no means do justice to its merit.

A R T I G N Y.

Best known for his Nouveaux mémoires d'histoire, de critique, & de littérature, 12mo. 6 vols. 1749.

A S T R U C.

One of the most eminent physicians in France; his works are full of sound knowledge, and most useful remarks on a variety of subjects.

1. De motu musculari, 12mo. 1710.
2. De motus fermentativi causa, 12mo. 1702.
3. Mémoire sur la cause de la digestion des alimens, 4to. 1711.
4. Differtatio Medica de Hydrophobia, 1720.
5. Differtation sur l'origine de la peste, 8vo. 1722.
6. Differtation sur la contagion de la peste, 8vo. 1725.
7. Traité de la cause de la digestion, 12mo. 1714.
8. Differtation sur la peste, 8vo. 1724.
9. Memoires pour servir à l'histoire naturelle de Languedoc, 4to. 1737.
10. Lettres sur les disputes entre les médecins & les chirurgiens, 4to. 1737.
11. De morbis Venereis, libri sex, 4to. 2 vols. 1740.
12. Tractatus Therapeutacus, 8vo. 1750.
13. Conjectures sur les mémoires originaux dont il paroît que Moyse s'est servi pour composer le livre de la Genese, 12mo. 1753.
14. Differtation sur l'immatérialité, l'immortalité, & la liberté de l'ame, 12mo. 1756.
15. Traité des maladies Veneriennes, 12mo. 4 vols. 1755.
16. Traité des maladies des Femmes, 12mo. 6 vols. 1761 and 1765.
17. Differtation sur la peste de Provence.
18. Lettre à M. d'Arnouval sur un livre de M. Dibon,
19. Mémoire

19. Mémoire sur la fontaine de Fontest-orbe.
20. Tractatus Pathologicus.
21. Traité des Tumeurs & des Ulcères.

AUBENTON.

One of the most celebrated botanists of the present age. His works are replete with the finest erudition in what may be called the learning of nature. He had a large share with M. Bouffon in the famous natural history and description of the French king's collection of natural curiosities. And in the Encyclopedia, the articles concerning natural history are his.

BACHAUMONT.

His pieces have taste, and are agreeable, but they are too superficial.

1. Mémoires sur le Louvre, 12mo. 1750.
2. Essai sur la peinture, la sculpture, & l'architecture, 12mo. 1751 and 1752. 8vo.
3. Edition of the Abbey Gedoy's translation of Quintilian, with his life, 12mo, 4 vols.
4. Vers sur l'achevement du Louvre, & sur la restauration de la Colonade, 1750.
5. Mémoires sur l'opéra, sur la place de Louis XV. sur les Salles des Spectacles, & sur la Bibliothèque du Roi.

BAILLET.

The following are his most agreeable pieces.

1. Poésies diverses, 1749, and 1751, 12mo.
2. Réflexions sur quelques circonstances présentes, contenant deux lettres sur l'exposition des Tableaux au Louvre, 1748.

3. Epître nouvelle sur l'amour du plaisir & de la gloire, 12mo. 1750.
4. Lettres sur la Peinture, 12mo. 1750.
5. Lettre sur les caractères en peinture, 12mo, 1753.
6. La Peinture ode (*in prose!*) de Milord Telliab, 12mo. 1753.
7. Satires nouvelles & autres pièces de littérature, 8vo. 1754.
8. La Peinture, poème, 8vo. 1755.

B A R B A R E T.

His dissertation sur l'électricité carried the prize of the academy of Bordeaux. His *essai sur la meilleure manière d'amender les terres*, contains a very sensible theory, which bids fair for a very advantageous practice.

B A R R E.

His works are useful as to *matter*, but not agreeable in *manner*. His best pieces are,

1. *Vindiciæ librorum deuterio canonicorum veteris testamenti*, 12mo. 1730.
2. *Histoire générale d'Allemagne*, 11 vols. 4to. 1748.
3. *Dissertatio apologetica adversus Joecherum*, 12mo. 1751.
4. *Vie du maréchal de Fabert*, 12mo. 2 vols. 1752.
5. *Histoire des loix & des tribunaux de justice de la monarchie François*, 4to. 1755.

B A R R E,

de Beaumarchais. His works are numerous, and many of them useful.

1. Avan-

1. Aventures de D. Antonio de Bufalis, 1722.
2. Des notes sur les métamorphoses d'Ovide par du Ryer.
3. La monarchie des Hebreux, traduite du marquis de saint Philippe, 12mo. 4 vols. 1728.
4. Lettres sérieuses & badines sur les ouvrages des sçavans, 12 vols. 12mo. 1749.
5. Le heros Chrétien, traduite de l'Anglois de Richard Stéele, & y a ajouté un traité de Vertus payennes, 12mo. 1729.
6. Histoire de Pologne sous le Roi Auguste, 8vo. 2 vols. 1733.
7. Histoire des sept ages de la Grece par Larrey, augmentée avec des remarques, 2 vols. 12mo. 1734.
8. Le Hollandois, ou lettres sur la Hollande, 12mo. 1738.
9. Amusemens littéraires, 12mo. 3 vols. 1740.
10. Histoire de la fondation de Rome, & de l'établissement de la république, 12mo. 2 vols. 1740.
11. Lettre sur l'explication des fables de l'abbé Banier.
12. Histoire abrégée de la maison Palatine par l'abbé Schannat, avec l'éloge historique de l'auteur, 12mo. 1740.

BARRERE.

One of the most distinguished naturalists in France. An author all of whose works are stamp'd with genuine excellency in being of general use.

1. Dissertation sur la cause physique de la couleur des negres, 4to. 1741.
2. Relation de la France équinoxiale, 12mo. 1743.

3. Essai

3. Essai sur l'histoire naturelle de la France équinoxiale, 12mo. 1748.
4. Ornitologia specimen novum, five series avium in Ruscinone, Pyreneis montibus, atque in Gallia equinoxtiali observatorum, 4to. 1745.
5. Observations sur l'origine & la formation des pierres figurées, 8vo. 1746.
6. Diverses observations anatomiques tirées des ouvertures d'un grand nombre de cadavres, 8vo. 1751, and 4to. 1753.

B A R T H E.

Some of this gentleman's light poetic pieces have great merit. His versification is in France reckoned easy and elegant. His *Épîtres* sur divers sujets, are agreeable, and characterise the manners of the inhabitants of Paris, in a lively manner.

Grands talens, spectacles magiques,

Tantôt courus, tantôt sifflés ;

Seigneurs vils, Midas boursoufflés ;

Bas flatteurs, amis politiques.

Cabriolets à jeune guide ;

Moines vermeils ; riches prélats ;

Abbés, Adonis en rabats ;

Sçavans au tein pâle & livide ;

Populace de Beaux-esprits :

Magistrats aux discours fleuris ;

Marquis bruyans à tête vuide ;

Amans volages ; bons maris.

B A R T H E L E M Y.

This celebrated antiquarian is very deeply read in the learning of the East, but his *Réflexions sur l'alphabet*

l'alphabet & sur la langue dont on se servoit autrefois à Palmyre, 4to. 1754, gave rise to a learned dispute among the orientalisists, which hangs yet in the dark.

BASTIDE.

A lively, agreeable, and entertaining writer.

1. Les confessions d'un Fat, 12mo. 1747.
2. Le Tribunal de l'amour, ou les causes célèbres de Cythere, 12mo. 1749.
3. Les Tetes folles, 12mo.
4. Le Tombeau philosophique, 12mo. 1751.
5. La Trentaine de Cythere, 12mo. 1752.
6. Mémoires de la Baronne de St. Clair, 12mo. 1752.
7. L'Etre pensant, 12mo. 2 vols. 1755.
8. L'Homme vray, 12mo. 2 vols. 1756.
9. Le Faux Oracle, 12mo. 1757.
10. Les Ressources de l'amour, 12mo.
11. Aventures de Victoire Ponty, 12mo.
12. Choix des anciens Mercurès, 8vo.
13. Lettre à M. Rousseau, au sujet de la lettre à M. d'Alembert, 12mo.
14. Lettres d'amour, 12mo.
15. Le nouveau Spectateur, 9 vols. 12mo. An agreeable imitation of the famous Spectator.
16. Le monde comme il est, 12mo. 1760. A periodical paper, upon the same plan as the last, only under a different title.
17. Discours sur l'utilité des sociétés littéraires, 1765. Wonderful attributes are given to literary society by M. Bastide. "The literary society, says he, has all the advantages of other societies, and none of their defects: She has no other ambition than to be useful and pleasing; she

she celebrates virtue; she forms the manners; she rules the imagination; she warms the heart, and enlightens the genius." Strange that the world does not abound in societies to forward such good works, from the Kamchatkans to the Hot-tentots—all people must be barbarians that have not literary societies among them.

B A T T E U X.

Some of his works are useful, but the soul of *French criticism* reigns in too many of them. The best are,

1. Les Beaux arts réduits à un meme principe, 12mo. 1746.
2. Cours de Belles-lettres, 12mo. 4 vols.
3. Traduction d'Horace, avec de courtes notes, 12mo. 2 vols. 1750.
4. Parallele de la Henriade & du Lutrin, 12mo.
5. Discours sur la naissance de M. le duc de Bourgogne.
6. De gestu veterum in studiis litterarum retinendo, oratio, 1750.
7. La morale d'Epicure, 12mo.
8. De la construction oratoire, 12mo. 1763.

B A U D O T.

His works chiefly consist of historic pieces, of which the following are the best.

1. Histoire de Catharine de France, Reine d'Angleterre, 12mo. 1696.
2. Histoire de Charles VII. 12mo. 2 vols. 1697 and 1754.
3. Histoire de la conquête d'Angleterre par Guillaume second duc de Normandie, 12mo. 1701.

4. Ger-

4. Germaine le Foix, Reine d'Espagne, nouvelle historique, 12mo. 1701.
5. Histoire de Philippe Auguste, 12mo. 2 vols. 1702.
6. Histoire secrete du Connétable de Bourbon, 12mo. 1696.
7. Relation historique et galante de l'invasion d'Espagne par les Maures, 12mo. 4 vols. 1722.
8. Memoire sur l'utilité des histoires particulieres des Provinces.

B E A U C H A M P S.

His prose is better than his poetry, but neither are excellent.—His best works are,

1. Recherches sur les théâtres de France, 3 vols. 8vo. 1735.
2. Lettres d'Héloïse et d'Abelard en vers François, 8vo. 1737.

And his theatrical pieces.

B E A U M E L L E.

A lively, agreeable and entertaining writer, with no inconsiderable knowledge of the human mind; his works are much read and no less admired.

1. La Spectatrice Danoise, 2 vols. 12mo, 1749.
2. Mes Pensées, 12mo.

This little collection of oddities, is one of the most remarkable sketches that have been published during the present age. It abounds with penetrating remarks on politicks, and the characters of political men—besides a variety of *touches* which have something of painting in them. I will give you a few instances of an agreeable play of imagination; the best pieces are too long to quote.—“Projectors

jectors commit the greatest faults. Those who never project at all, the most."——"Projector! never be disheartened. A person has promised the commerce of all the world, to a people who have neither ports nor money, nor ships, nor commodities, nor men: it was a sensible people, and the man was believed."——" 'Tis easier to raise to the highest pitch of power, a barbarous nation, than to draw a civilized one from a state of mediocrity."——" I would willingly be informed, says madam Puyfieux, in the second part of her characters, what the greatest part of women do with a mathematician, a chemist, or mechanic? Why just what every woman that loves pleasure does with every man that does not hate it."——" It belongs only to such as have a violent propensity to vice, to practise great virtues."——" It is natural for a man, even for an Englishman, to have a certain serenity settled in his eyes, when there is no further doubt about the fine shape of his leg."——" There are perhaps more persons who have been wanting to an opportunity, than there are, to whom an opportunity has been wanting."——" A woman who will take the advice of her constitution, will always prefer to the man of sense, the man whose sense does not lie in his head."——" There is a certain country where neither seraglios nor bolts are known, and where the women, nevertheless, have neither the pleasures of vice, nor the reputation of virtue."——" Who is the most virtuous woman breathing? She whom constitution hath made the most voluptuous, and reason the coldest of her sex."

3. Suite de la défense de l'Esprit des Loix,
12mo. 1751.

4. Discours prononcé à l'ouverture des Leçons
publiques à Copenhague, 4to. 1751.

5. Pensées

5. Pensées de Seneque, 12mo. 2 vols. 1752.
6. Lettres de madame de Maintenon, 2 vols. 1752.
7. Vie de madame de Maintenon, 12mo. 2 vols. 1753. 15 vols. 1756.
8. Le Siecle de Louis XIV. par M. de Voltaire, avec des notes, 12mo. 3 vols. 1753.
9. Réponse au Supplément du siecle de Louis XIV. 12mo. 1754.
10. Mélanges de morale et de Littérature, 12mo. 1754.
11. Lettres sur les démêlés avec M. de Voltaire, 12mo.
12. Tacite, avec une traduction François et une nouvelle édition du texte Latin.
13. Mémoire devant le Sénéchal de Nîmes.

B E A U S O B R E.

An ingenious writer, and an able mathematician. His principal works are,

1. Dissertatio de nonnullis ad jus hierarchicum pertinentibus.
2. Taj. cis. ad Viadr. 1750.
3. Lettres sur la littérature Allemande dans les Mercurès de France, de 1752 et 1753.
4. Dissertations philosophiques sur la nature du feu et sur les différentes parties de la philosophie et des mathématiques, 12mo. 1753.
5. Le Pirrhonisme du Sage, 8vo. 1754. 12mo. 1755.
6. Songes d'Epicure, 8vo. 1756.

B E A U M E R,

Madame. Her Journal des Dames, is lively and entertaining.—I insert all the female authors, that

that you may observe what numbers there are in France, and catch from thence no slight idea of French manners.

BEAUSSOL,

Celebrated for his *Poème aux Anglois* à l'occasion de la Paix universelle, 8vo. 1763.

As I gave you a specimen of M. Arnaud's satire, I shall do the same with this gentleman's praise.

C'est vous seuls que je chante, ennemis magnanimes.

A vous qui prétendez à l'empire des mers!
Qui du sommet glacé du nouvel univers,
Allez vous enrichir par un heureux échange,
Des pierres de Golconde et des trésors du Gange,
Et qui sçavez encor, fastueux sans danger,
L'art d'acheter ce luxe avec l'or étranger;
Antiques ennemis d'un peuple qui vous aime,
Intrépides Anglois, célèbres par nous-même,
C'est vous seul qu'un François de votre gloire
épris,

Au sein de vos rivaux, dans les murs de Paris.
A travers les clameurs d'une foule égarée,
Embrassant de Louis l'image réverée,
Qu'elle ombrage à l'envi d'oliviers encor verds;
Oui, c'est vous qu'un François veut chanter dans
ces vers.

BENOIT,

Madame. Her romance entituled *Mes Principes*, and her *Journal littéraire*, are her best works.

B E A U M O N T,

Madame.

1. Nouveau Magasin Anglois.
2. Magasin des enfans.
3. Lettres des Marquis de Roselle, 2 vols. 1765.
4. Lettres de Sophie et du Chevalier D * * pour servir de supplement aux lettres de Roselle, 2 vols. 1765.

The Lettres de Roselle is her best production.

B E S P L A S.

His Discours de l'Utilité des Voyages relativement aux sciences et aux mœurs, is a piece of great merit, both in matter and stile.

B E L I D O R.

One of the first military writers in France, where his works are in great esteem.

1. Nouveau cours de Mathématiques à l'usage de l'artillerie et du génie, 4to. 1725.
2. La science des Ingénieurs dans la conduite des travaux de fortification et d'architecture civile, 4to. 1729.
3. Le Bombardier François, 1734. 4to.
4. Architecture hydraulique, 4to. 4 vols. 1734.
5. Traité des effets de la poudre dans le canon, les bombes, et les mines, 1741.
6. Dictionnaire portatif de l'ingenieur, ou l'on explique les principaux termes des sciences les plus nécessaires à un Ingénieur, 12mo. 1755.
7. Traité de fortification, 4to. 2 vols.

R

BEL-

B E L L I N.

This very ingenious geographer is worthy to be placed among the most useful of the French authors. All his maps are good, and many of them excellent.

B E R N I S,

Cardinal de. The following are the principal pieces of which he is the author. He is better known in the political than the literary world.

1. *Réflexions sur les passions et sur les goûts en vers et en prose*, 8vo. 1738.
2. *L'Irreligion*, poeme.
3. *Œuvres mêlées en prose et en vers*, 8vo. 1752, and other editions afterwards.

B E L L O Y.

Best known by his theatrical pieces, of which *Zelmire*, and *Siege de Calais*, are his best, the latter tragedy made a prodigious noise in France; the mayor and aldermen of Calais waited on the author with a most flaming compliment, and he received many other marks of admiration.

B E R T R A N D,

John, Rector of Orbe in Switzerland. A very valuable writer, and greatly esteemed among the Swiss. The principal of his works are,

1. *Description du cap Bonne Espérance*, 12mo. 3 vols. 1741.
2. *Le Philantrope*, 12mo. 2 vols. 1738.
3. *Lettres*

3. Lettres des Morts aux Vivans, traduit de madame Rowe, 12mo. 2 vols. 174c.
4. Sermons de Tillotson, tome vii.
5. Leonidas, poeme traduit.
6. Instructions pour les mariniers, par Hales.
7. Essai sur bleds versés, in the Mémoires de la Societé Œconomique de Berne, 1763. vol. 3d.
8. Esprit de la législation pour encourager l'agriculture, la population, les manufactures, et le commerce. — In the memoires de la Societé de Berne, 1765. vol. 2d.

This piece gained the prize which the Count of Miniszech a Polish nobleman, Staroste of Ivanow, and residing in Swisserland, gave for the best solution of this proposition, *viz.* What ought to be the spirit of legislation for favouring agriculture, relatively to that first object population, and the arts, manufactures and commerce? — It abounds with a very considerable treasure, of truly political knowledge, and the justest ideas of the real importance of agriculture.

9. De l'Eau relativement à l'Economie Rustique, 8vo. 1764.

B E R T R A N D,

Elie; Brother of the preceding.

1. Mémoires sur la structure intérieure de la Terre, 8vo. 1752.
2. Instructions Chrétiennes, 12mo. 1753, and 8vo. 1756.
3. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire des tremblemens de terre de la Suisse, 8vo. 1756.
4. Quatre sermons à l'occasion de l'éversion de Lisbonne, 8vo. 1756.

This ingenious gentleman's pieces are much esteemed; and the share he had in the foundation of the admirable Berne Society, merits the greatest praise.

B I B I E N A.

His principal works are,

1. Mémoires de M. de * * * traduits de l'Italien, par lui même.
2. Histoire de Valerie et de Barbarigo, 2 vols. 12mo. 1741.
3. Le Petit Toutou, 1746.
4. La Force d'Exemple, 12mo. 1747.
5. La Poupée.
6. Le triomphe du Sentiment, 12mo. 1750.

B L A I S E.

His mathematical works are worthy of the reputation they have gained.

B L A N C.

An ingenious author, but strangely known in general by the worst of his works—his Letters on the English.

1. Poëme sur l'histoire des gens de lettres de Bourgogne, 8vo. 1726.
2. Elegies, 8vo. 1731.
3. Lettres sur les Tableaux exposé au Louvre, en 1747, 12mo.
4. Lettres d'un François sur les Anglois, 1745 and 1751. 3 vols. 12mo.
5. Observations sur les ouvrages de M. M. de l'académie de Peinture, et de Sculpture exposées au Salon du Louvre, 12mo. 1753.
6. Lettre

6. Lettre à M. le Président de Ruffey, sur l'élection de M. le comte de Clermont, à l'academie François, 4to. 1753.
7. Discours politiques traduits de l'Anglois de David Hume, 2 vols. 12mo. 1754, 2 vols. 8vo. 1755.
8. Editor of the Lettres de M. de la Motte, 12mo. 1754.
Theatrical pieces.

B L A N C H E T.

Best known by his *Idée du Siècle Littéraire réduit à six vrais auteurs*: which is certainly the most ridiculous idea that ever entered the whimsical head of a literary projector. His six true authors are, Greffet, Trublet, Fontenelle, Montesquieu, Piere, and Castel the Jesuit.

B L O N D.

Well known for his numerous military works, the chief of which, are the following.

1. Elemens de Fortification, 1739. 1764.
2. Elemens de la guerre, 3 vols. 8vo. 1743.
3. Mémoires d'artillerie de M. Surirey de S. Remy, 3 vols. 4to. 1745. augmented.
4. Essai sur la Castrametation, ou sur la mesure, et de tracé des camps, 8vo. 1748.
5. L'Arithmétique et la Géométrie de l'officier, 2 vols. 8vo. 1748.
6. Abregé d'Arithmétique et de Géométrie, à l'usage des jeunes militaires, 12mo. 1748.
7. Nouveaux elemens de fortification, à l'usage des jeunes militaires, 12mo. 1752.
8. The articles in the Encyclopædia on the military art are his.

B L O N D E A U.

There is an agreeable liveliness in this gentleman's pieces, which deserve to be better known than they are. The best of them are,

1. Mémoires des Chev. Blondeau, 12mo.
2. Œuvres des Chev. Blondeau, 2 vols. 12mo. 1745.
3. Essai sur le point d'honneur, 12mo. 1748.
4. La Fortune, ou usage des Richesses, 12mo.
5. La Réputation, 8vo. 1748.
6. Abrégé de l'histoire de Marguerite d'Autriche.
7. Les Mœurs des Bâlois.
8. Le Philosophe babillard, 12mo. 1748.

B L O N D E L.

An architect whose works are much prized in France; he wrote,

1. De la distribution des Maisons de plaisance et de la décoration des édifices en général, 2 vols. 4to. 1737.
2. Un Recueil des plans des Eglises, Maisons-Royales, Palais et edifices les plus considérables de Paris, avec la Description de ces édifices, 8 vols. folio, 1752.
3. Discours sur la nécessité de l'étude de l'architecture, 8vo. 1754.
4. The articles concerning architecture, in the Encyclopædia, are his.

B O C A G E,

Madame. The principal of her pieces are the following.

1. Le

1. Le Paradis Terrestre, poeme, imité de Milton, 8vo. 1748.
 2. La prix alternatif entre les Belles Lettres et les Sciences, poeme. This piece was crowned at Rouen in 1746.
 3. Le Temple de la Renommée, poeme de Pope traduit, 8vo. 1749.
 4. La Colombiade, 8vo. 1756.
- Her husband has translated some pieces from the English.

B O I S.

The voluminousness of this writer is excusable, as he has in general dedicated his time to useful studies. His works are very well worth a list;

1. Dictionnaire universel de l'histoire naturelle du regne animal, consistant en quadrupedes, oiseau, &c. 3 vols. folio.
2. Les doutes de M. Kléin traduit du Latin, 8vo. 1754.
3. Systême naturel du regne animal, 8vo. 1754. 2 vols.
4. Traduction des Missus de M. Klein, 8vo.
5. Dictionnaire Militaire, 2 vols. 12mo. 1745.
6. Dictionnaire d'Agriculture, 2 vols.
7. Lettre pour servir de Supplément à l'amusement philosophique sur le langage des Bêtes, 12mo. 1739.
8. L'Astrologue dans le puits, 12mo. 1740.
9. Lettre à le Marquis * * * sur la Merope de M. de Voltaire, et sur celle de M. Maffei, 8vo. 1743.
10. Le parfait Cocher, 12mo. 1744.
11. Dictionnaire des alimens, vins, et liqueurs, 3 vols. 12mo. 1750.

12. *Ordre naturel des ourfins de mer, et fossiles*, traduit du Latin de M. Klein, 8vo. 1754.
13. *Dictionnaire généalogique*, 8vo.
14. He had a large share in the seven volumes of the *Réflexions sur les Ouvrages de Littérature*, par l'abbé Granet.

BOISMORTIER,

Mademoiselle. Her chief work is the *Memoires de la Comtesse de Mariemberg*, 12mo. 1751.

BOULAINVILLIERS.

Celebrated for the treatise entituled, *Les Intereurs de la France mal entendus dans les branches de l'Agriculture, de la Population, des Finances, du commerce, de la Marine, et de l'Industrie*, 3 vols. 12mo. 1756. A work famous for freedom, truth, and a considerable knowledge of those important subjects.

BOISSY.

A comic writer, of native and genuine humour. He is certainly one of the first which France has produced. His *Oeuvres de Théâtre* are in 9 vols. 8vo. His best pieces are, 1. *L'amant de sa femme*. 2. *L'impatient*. 3. *Le Babillard*. 4. *Admete et Alceste* (trag.). 5. *Le François à Londres*. 6. *L'impertinent malgré lui*. 7. *Le Badinage*. 8. *Les deux nièces*. 9. *Le pouvoir de la sympathie*. 10. *Les Dehors trompeurs*. 11. *L'embarras du choix*. 12. *L'épous par supercherie*. 13. *La fête d'auteuil*. 14. *Le Sage étourdi*. 15. *Le Medecin par occasion*. 16. *La*

16. *La Folie de jour*. His italian comedy, in which path he is the author of numerous pieces, has not the merit of the above.

B O L Z.

His Description Oeconomique de la Paroisse de Chietres, in the Berne memoirs 1763, vol. 1st. is an exceedingly valuable tract, in its setting an example worthy of being followed all over Europe. This gentleman is Rector of the Parish, and describes it under several heads of inhabitants—country—fields—produce—cattle—rural oeconomy, &c. &c. &c.

B O N.

Best known by his

1. *Memoires sur les marons d'Inde*, 4to. and
2. *Dissertation sur l'utilité de la soie des Araignées*, in french and latin, 8vo. 1748.
3. *Memoire sur le Thermometre*.

B O N N E V A L.

Besides several critical pieces of no great reputation, he is the author of,

1. *Lettre d'un hermite à J. J. Rousseau*, 1753.
2. *Apologie de la musique et des musiciens François*, 1754.

B O R D E.

One of the numerous answerers of M. J. J. Rousseau. His piece is entituled *Deux discours sur les avantages des sciences et des arts, en réponse à J. J. Rousseau*, 1752.

BOUCHER.

BOUCHER.

A most voluminous writer on subjects of Jurisprudence. Some of his works are in esteem.

BOUGAINVILLE.

Of the French academy. Most known by his *Traduction de l'Anti-Lucrece*, 8vo. 1749. and his *Parallele de l'expédition d'Alexandre dans les Indes avec la conquête des mêmes contrées*, par Thamas Kouli Kan, 8vo. 1751.

BOUGUER.

Author of many very valuable tracts not sufficiently known in all maritime countries.

1. *De la nature des Vaisseaux*, 4to. This piece carried the prize of the academy of Sciences in 1727.
2. *Méthode d'observer exactement sur mer la hauteur des astres*, 4to. Carried the prize also, of the year 1729.
3. *Essai d'optique sur la gradation de la lumière*, 12mo. 1729.
4. *De la manière d'observer en mer la déclinaison de la Boussole*, 4to. Carried the prize also, of the year 1731.
5. *Traité du Navire de sa construction et de ses mouvemens*, 4to. 1746.
6. *Entretiens sur la cause de l'inclinaison des orbites des planetes*, 4to. 1748.
7. *La figure de la Terre déterminée par les observations que Mrs. Bouguer et de la Condamine ont fait au Pérou*, 4to. 1749.
8. *Justification des mémoires de l'academie des Sciences à l'occasion des disputes sur la figure de la Terre*, 4to. 1752.
9. *Nouveau Traité de Navigation contenant la théorie et la pratique du pilotage*, 4to. 1753.
10. Lettre

10. Lettre sur divers points d'Astronomie, 4to.
1754.

B O U R G U I G N O N.

A very able mathematician and the best geographer in France: His works are truly valuable.

1. Proposition d'une Mesure de la Terre, 12mo.
1735.
2. Mesure conjecturale de la Terre sur l'équateur, 12mo. 1736.
3. Réponse au mémoire contre la mesure conjecturale des degrés de l'équateur, 12mo.
1738.
4. Réponse au sujet de l'histoire de la Chine du P. du Halde.
5. Traité des mesures itinéraires des Romains.
6. Eclaircissements géographiques sur l'ancienne Gaule, 12mo. 1741.
7. Many Geographical Charts, very much esteemed.
8. Analyse géographique de l'Italie, 4to. 1744.
9. Dissertation sur l'étendue de l'ancienne Jérusalem, et de son temple, 8vo. 1747.
10. Nouvel Atlas de la Chine, folio.
11. Eclaircissements géographiques sur la carte de l'Inde, 4to. 1753.

B R A N C A S.

An able mathematician and geographer; his works are valuable. His Explication du flux et reflux de la mer, 4to. 1749. is one of his best pieces.

B R O H O N,

Mademoiselle. Her Amans Philosophes, ou le triomphe

triomphe de la raison, 12mo. 1755. is an agreeable romance.

BRUHIER.

An author of merit; many of his works are useful, but some of them are reckoned rather trifling. He is best known by his—

1. Traduction de la médecine raisonnée de Hoffmann, 9 vols. 12mo. 1739.
2. Dissertation sur l'incertitude des signes de la mort, 2 vols. 12mo. 1749.
3. Mémoires pour servir à la vie de M. Silva, 8vo. 1749.

4. Caprices d'Imagination, ou lettres sur divers sujets, 12mo. 1740. These letters are whimsical enough, but one of them which contains his maxims, has two or three worth translating.—

“A book without a preface, is a kind of literary monster. But if the work is good, why ask pardon of the reader? And if it is bad, what follows from asking it?”—“Is there a greater folly than that of punishing the faults of others? Julius Caesar enslaves his country, and Cato kills himself.”

—“It is very rare that a man possessed of a great mind is agreeable in conversation: There is too much pain in lowering his ideas to the trivial subjects of common conversation”—“Nothing more common than to seek consolation in a source, the streams of which are exhausted. Abelard deprived for ever of the pleasures he had tasted with his dear Eloisa, throws himself into a cloister, and builds a monastery under the Invocation of the Paraclet. A woman of the world never thinks of God, until the world thinks no longer of her. See M. F * * * occupied in works of piety!”—

BAUCHE.

B A U C H E.

First Geographer to the king. Is it possible that there can be great trading nations in the world, who are perpetually lighting up the flames of war, to the ruin of millions of men, for the sake of commerce, and yet overlook the inexhaustable mines of wealth and naval power, which are spread so thick over the great South Sea! England, Spain, and France, have been repeatedly called upon by their own people to profit by worlds unknown—but all is kept under a mysterious veil by a company of private traders of a republick that scarce exists—a republic of mere traders, that falls at the first hand that is lifted against her! A republic who laid her foundation in commerce during a bloody war—who is ruined in the midst of profound peace! M. Bauche is the author of *Considérations Géographiques et Physiques sur les Nouvelles Découvertes au Nord de la grande mer, appelée vulgairement la mer du Sud*, 3 vols. 4to. 1753.

B U F F O N.

Known for his vast knowledge of natural history over the whole world. His works are truly philosophical, and display an erudition which does honour to himself and his country.

1. *Traité des fluxions*, traduit de Newton, 4to. 1740.
2. *La Statique des Végétaux*, traduite de l'anglois de Hales, 4to. 1745.
3. *Histoire Naturelle*, 13 vols. 4to. 1749; 1765.

There are so many systems of natural history, that it has been asked by many, especially the disciples

ciples of Linnæus, What occasion for a new one? M. Buffon answers these gentlemen in the properest manner possible——by giving a slight view of the famous system of Linnæus; I shall lay an extract of this part of his work before you, it will display the justness of his intentions in composing so voluminous a work.—“That writer divides the whole animal world into six classes, viz. quadrupeds, birds, amphibious animals, fish, insects, and worms. Now this first division, is evidently incomplete, for it conveys no idea of certain genera which are nevertheless considerably extensive: Such are crustaceous animals, shells, and serpents, which, at first sight, appear to be totally forgot. For how can it occur to us, that serpents are amphibious, that crustaceous animals are insects, or that shell fish are worms? Had he extended his classes to twelve or more instead of six, he would have been more clear, and his division less arbitrary; for in treating of natural productions, the more we enlarge the number of our divisions, the nearer we approach to truth; for nature produces only individuals; all the connections of orders, classes, genera, and the like exist only in our own imagination.—We shall find, if we examine the generical characteristics only, which he uses, yet greater defects: Thus for instance, any particular, as that of teats, used for the distinction of quadrupeds, ought to belong to all animals; whereas, from the time of Aristotle it has been well known that the horse has no teats.—The class of quadrupeds he subdivides into five orders, viz. 1. *Anthropomorphæ*. 2. *Feræ*. 3. *Glires*. 4. *Jumenta*. 5. *Pecora*; from the enumeration of these orders it must be apparent, that the division is not only arbitrary, but ill imagined:

gined: for he places in the first, the man, the ape, the sloth, and the armadillo. The systematic phrensy must run high indeed to rank beings together so different as a man, and an armadillo! The second order he begins with the lion and tyger, but then he goes to the cat, the otter, the weasel, the sea-calf, the dog, the bear, the badger—and at last comes the hedge-hog, the mole and the bat! Could any one have thought the three last deserve the name of *Feræ* or wild beasts—or such domestic animals as a dog or a cat? *Glires*, or dormice is his third order; he arranges under this head, not only all the mouse kind (of which I know but one, the dormouse) but the porcupine, the horse, the squirrel, and the beaver. The fourth is the *Jumenta*, or animals of burthen, these are the elephant, the sea-horse, the shew mouse, the horse, and the hog—so incongruous and whimsical an assemblage, as to make us think it must have cost the author no slight pain to render it ridiculous. Lastly the *Pecora*, or cattle, consists of the camel, the stag, the goat, the sheep, and the ox: but what a difference is there between the camel and the sheep—the stag and the goat! For what reason should such creatures be ranked in the same order, except from a determination that the animal kingdom should be reduced into so few orders? Then if his subdivisions be further examined the lynx will be found to be a kind of cat—the fox and wolf, a sort of dog—the civet a kind of badger—the guinea pig, a kind of a hare—the rhinoceros, an elephant, and the ass, a horse! And this incongruity, merely because there is some uniformity in the number of their teats—or the figure of their horns.—From his system of quadrupeds we may judge of the rest. With him serpents are amphibious animals—the crab, and lobster, are
not

not only insects, but of the same class with lice and fleas! The shell, crustaceous and gelatinous fish, oysters, muscles, star, and cuttle fish, are indiscriminately—worms!”

B U R Y.

His most noted pieces are, *La Vie Heroique et privée de Henry IV.* 2 vols. 4to. 1764. and 4 vols. 12mo. 1766. and his *Histoire de Jules César.*

C A I L L E.

A mathematician whose works are well known; the principal are,

1. *Elemens d'algèbre et de géometrie*, 8vo.
2. *Leçons élémentaires d'astronomie, geometrie, et physique*, 8vo. 1748 and 1755.
3. *Leçons élémentaires de mécanique*, 8vo. 1743.
4. He continued the *Ephemerides de Desplaces* depuis 1745, jusqu'en 1766, 4to. 2 vols.
5. *La Table des eclipses qui est dans l'art de vérifier les dates*, 4to.

C A L M E T.

As this very learned monk's works may be of great use to all employed in any pieces of ecclesiastical history or literature, and as the chief of them are little known in any language except the French, I shall insert a list of them numerous as they are. He is one of the most voluminous authors of the present age.

1. *Vie de Jesus Christ*, 12mo. 1720.
2. *Commentaire litteral sur tous les livres de l'ancien Testament*, 1724. 4to. 25 vols. and 6 in folio.

3. The

3. The same in Latin, 6 vols. folio.
4. Lettres pour servir de réponse à la critique de M. Fourmont sur le commentaire.
5. Dissertations sur l'écriture sainte tirées du commentaire, 1720. 4to. 3 vols.
6. Histoire de l'ancien et du nouveau testament, 4to. 4 vols. 12mo. 7 vols. 1725.
7. Dissertation sur les grands chemins de Lorraine, 4to. 1727.
8. Abrégé chronologique de l'histoire sacrée et profane depuis le commencement du monde jusqu'à nous, 8vo. 1729.
9. The same in latin, 1733.
10. Dictionnaire historique et critique de la bible, 4 vols. folio, 1730. and 4 in 4to.
11. The same in latin, 4 vols. 4to.
12. Histoire ecclésiastique et civile de Lorraine, folio, 4 vols. 1745.
13. Histoire de Lorraine abrégée, 8vo. 1734.
14. Commentaire littéral sur la règle de S. Benoît, 2 vols. 4to. 1734.
15. The same in latin, 1748.
16. Histoire universelle sacrée et profane, 15 vols. 4to. 1735. and several vols. successively afterwards.
17. Dissertation sur la suite métallique des ducs et duchesses de Lorraine, 4to. 1736.
18. Histoire généalogique de la maison du Châtel, folio, 1741.
19. Dissertation sur les apparitions des esprits, 12mo. 1746.
20. Dissertation sur les vampires ou revenans de Hongrie, 12mo. 2 vols. 1749.
21. Traité historique des baux et lains de Plombières de Bourbon, &c. par D. L. Durand augmentée, 8vo. 1748.

22. *Bibliothèque Lorraine, ou histoire des hommes illustres qui ont fleuri en Lorraine*, folio, 1751.

Besides many works in manuscript. Think of a man attaining his 48th year before he begun to write, and afterwards being the author of this multitude of works!

CARACCIOLA.

The Marquis of. A very trivial insignificant writer, and a very bigotted one: much properer for a monk than a soldier. His *Grandeur d'Ame*, one would suppose the work of a man who held his pen in one hand, while he counted his beads with the other.

CARRARD.

Minister of Orb in Switzerland. The economical writings of this most ingenious gentleman are greatly to his honour. He is best known by his *Mémoire sur les observations météorologiques*, in the *Memoires of the Berne Society*, 1763, vol. i. p. 93. a piece which abounds with the justest ideas and the happiest application of numerous observations. His *Mémoire sur la question proposée par M. le Comte de Moissech*, the prize for which was gained by M. Bertrand, (See p. 243.) is a most valuable piece, full of the justest remarks on agriculture, manufactures, commerce and population. I shall translate an extract or two from this excellent essay, which will prove to you what I assert, better than ten pages of praise. His parallel between great and small estates, is applicable to all countries.

“Nothing

Nothing animates a cultivator so much as working upon his own ground: Whenever this is the case, you will never see that indifference, which proves at once, that the labourer is in the field of another; on the contrary, his activity is sustained by the agreeable idea, that the more he ameliorates his farm, the more he augments its value, and the sooner it will place him in a state of ease. It is therefore of great consequence that the countrymen should be proprietors, and in general possess the land they cultivate. The little extent of their domains is the strongest spur to their industry. The necessity they are under of finding subsistence for their families, forces them to augment the fertility of their ground. Bad land ameliorates itself under the hands of its possessor who labours himself upon it: but when it belongs to a rich man, who disdaining such work employs mercenaries to perform it, it lies almost always waste; for none are disposed to hire workmen at a large expence to break up and amend bad lands, when there is an uncertainty of being repaid the cost; the money is converted to other uses, or an estate bought in a more fertile soil. But the little proprietor of such waste lands is not so repulsed; as he has not the means of purchasing another farm, he attaches himself with vigor to the cultivation, and corrects by every means the bad qualities he meets with: He does not regret these pains for the little they return him—he loses not a moment—but through the force of diligence and labour, he by degrees changes the nature of his soil, and reduces it to a profitable land. This is a true conquest to the state: a new field is gained to the country, instead of being lost under the hands of a citizen, or a great proprietor. Such a countryman, makes the most of every thing that is yield-

ed by his little domain; and manages all with a wise oeconomy. But the great are regardless of what they call trifles; and are at too great a distance to turn all to profit. With them you see that turned into avenues, walks, and useless decorations which would maintain many a poor family.

—But it may be asked, how can a countryman who possesses but a few fields, and they yielding a very moderate revenue, be able to command good instruments of husbandry? Is it not natural to believe that his land could not be well cultivated?

—Yes; it may, much better than by a great proprietor who disdains labour, provided he is not in debt, that he lives under a mild government, and that he has been inspired in his youth, with a love of frugality and labour. The use of oxen and artificial grasses being introduced, the little proprietor will always have the necessary succours for ameliorating his land—for the quantity of manure, and the number of plows and draughts, augment in proportion to the fields. Never was agriculture more flourishing than among the Romans, before the lands were too unequally divided among the citizens, and while all, were at the same time proprietors and cultivators. The portions which Romulus had assigned them were very small, but being well cultivated, they sufficed for the maintenance of their families, for they found wonderful resources in their frugality and love of labour."

—The following observation is philosophical, and above vulgar prejudice.

"Whatever augments subsistence, facilitates marriage. There are at the same time certain kinds of food which add to the fecundity of the human species, and which seem to furnish a matter more proper than the common, for generation. The use of fish, appears to offer both advantages, where-
ever

ever it abounds; for it is always observed that in sea port towns, the number of children is greater than elsewhere. It would be favouring population, and the fruitfulness of marriages in many parts of our country, to stock better our lakes and rivers with good fish, and then to proscribe the abuse of them. The fishing would occupy great numbers of men, furnish the means of living easy, and a numerous posterity would serve to re-people those parts where the inhabitants diminish. As there are kinds of food, which contribute to the success of the generative action, there are others which are prejudicial to it, and which ought to be prohibited the inhabitants where they abound. Hard waters, for example, according to Hippocrates, contribute to sterility."

C A S T E L.

His mathematical and philosophical works are in great esteem,

1. Plan d'une mathématique abrégée, 4to. 1727.
2. La géométrie naturelle en dialogues, 1739.
3. Dissertation philosophique et littéraire, ou par les vrais de la physique, et de la géométrie on recherche si les règles des arts, soit mécaniques, soit libéraux, sont fixes ou arbitraires, 1739.
4. Traité de physique sur la pesanteur universelle des corps, 12mo. 2 vols. 1723.
5. La mathématique universelle, 4to. 1726.
6. Le système de physique par Isaac Newton, exposé et analysé en parallèle avec celui de Descartes, à la portée du commun des physiciens, 4to. 1743.
7. Lettres sur la fin du monde.
8. L'Optique des couleurs, 12mo. 1740.

9. Lettres d'un académicien de Bordeaux sur le fond de la musique, 1754.
10. Réponse critique d'un académicien de Rouen, à l'académicien de Bordeaux, 1754.
11. L'Homme moral opposé à l'homme physique de M. R. 8vo. 1756.
12. He is one of the writers of the Mémoires de Trévoux.

C A T.

A very celebrated physician in France, whose works are in esteem, not only there, but in most foreign countries.

1. Dissertation physique sur le balancement d'un arc-boutant de l'église de St. Nicaise de Reims, 1724.
2. Dissertations qui ont été couronnées à l'académie de chirurgie depuis 1732.
3. Première année de ces prix jusqu'en 1738, &c.
4. Réponse à la critique des ses conjectures sur le flux et reflux, 1736.
5. Traité des sens, 8vo. 1740.
6. Essai sur l'impulsion appliquée aux phénomènes de la lumière et à quelques autres attribuées à l'attraction.
7. Remarques sur les mémoires de l'académie de chirurgie, 12mo. 1745.
8. Lettres concernant l'opération de la taille pratiquée sur les deux sexes, 12mo. 1749.
9. Recueil de pieces concernant l'opération de la taille, 8vo. 1751.
10. Réfutation du discours du citoyen de Geneve (Rousseau) 8vo. 1752.
11. Dissertation sur l'existence, et de la nature du fluide, des nerfs, et son action pour le mouvement

mouvement musculaire, 1753. This piece carried the prize of the Berlin academy.

12. Réponse au Recueil de frere Côme.
13. Eloge de M. de Fontenelle, 12mo.
14. Parellèle de la taille latérale, avec deux dissertations, 8vo. 1766.

C A U S A N S.

A mathematical projector, who has published several pieces which are by turns whimsical, sensible, and absurd; he is best known by

1. Prospectus apologetique pour la quadrature du cercle, 4to. 1753.
2. Démonstration de la quadrature du cercle, 4to. 1754.
3. La vraie géometrie transcendante et pratique, &c. 4to. 1745.
4. Eclaircissement sur le peché originel, 8vo. 1755.

C A Y L U S.

Count. A nobleman of a most elegant taste for the fine arts—his works abound with science, judgment, and the graces.

1. Le Caloandre fidelle traduit de l'italien de Marini, 3 vols. 12mo. 1740.
2. Les vies de Mignard et le Moine dans les vies des premiers peintures du Roi.
3. Recueil d'Antiquités Egyptiennes, Etrusques, Grecques et Romaines, 6 vols. 4to. 1756. 1764.
4. Déclaration du public dans la querelle des Bouffons, 12mo. 1754.
5. Mémoire sur la peinture à l'encaustique et sur la peinture à la cire, 8vo. 1755.

6. *Nouveaux sujets de peinture, et sculpture*, 12mo. 1755. Most of these new subjects are well chose, and recommended with attendant remarks that must be of no inconsiderable use to artists that would execute them. His observation is just—"that the pictures which represent women of the age of pleasure have a more general attraction than any others; nor is this surprising: All is charming, all delicious in them. They are the productions, the most touching, the most exquisite of nature. The finest flowers cannot be compared to them. Pleasure animates their least gestures. The graces preside over all their movements: In fine, all their actions acquire a redoubled interest. The same reason which renders these subjects the most agreeable to see, renders them likewise the most pleasing to paint."* This remark is so very strikingly true, that it is wonderful there should be such numbers of pictures on the most contrary and horrible subjects. The best of his new subjects are—The eleven Grecian girls disputing the prize of the course—The Graces bathing in the fountain of Acidalia—and Phalaris ordering Perillus into the burning bull.

7. *Les Nouvelles Héeries*, 12mo. 2 vols.

CHABERT.

His *Voyage fait par ordre du Roi en 1750, et 1751, dans l'Amérique septentrionale*, 1753, 4to. is judiciously drawn up, and entertaining.

CHARLEVOIX.

Remarkable for his histories of his travels which have been prodigiously extensive, and his

accounts are in general reckoned very good authority. They consist of

1. Histoire du Christianisme dans le Japon, 12mo. 3 vols. 1715.
2. Histoire et description générale du Japon, 4to. 2 vols. 1738, and 12mo. 6 vols. 1754.
3. Histoire de l'isle de St. Dominique, 4to. 2 vols. 1720.
4. Histoire générale de la Nouvelle France, 4to. 3 vols. 1744, and 12mo. 6 vols.
5. Histoire générale du Paraguay.

CHATEAUVIEUX.

Famous all over Europe for his experiments in the New Husbandry, published in M. du Hamel's *Culture des Tères*. This very ingenious gentleman has made experimental agriculture, his amusement for many years, and by keeping a regular and exact journal of *most* circumstances relative to his trials, was enabled to publish an history of his practice, which was immediately followed by many other persons in France, who likewise published their experiments. M. de Chateauvieux's book has been translated into most languages, and experiments are daily making in many parts of Europe, in the New husbandry of which an Englishman, Tull, was the inventor. I shall make a few remarks on the sensible Frenchman's experiments, which may be of some little use to those who are induced from reading his memoirs to practice the new husbandry.

- I. The common produce in M. de Chateauvieux's neighbourhood, is three times the seed of wheat, and all the numerous calculations, and estimates, which he inserts with his experiments

periments to show the superiority of the New husbandry as he practises it, are founded on such a produce. Likewise, it is the common husbandry among his neighbours to sow half their land every year with wheat, and fallow the other half.

II. M. de Chateaufieux inserts particular accounts of the time, and manner of giving the necessary culture, but states the expences no where—

III. Under the foregoing circumstances, he proves the New husbandry to be superior to the Old.

IV. The drill plough, which M. de Chateaufieux recommends to his readers, and which he used himself, is a most complicate machine, infinitely difficult to make, any where, and impossible to repair in a village, besides the first cost of it, being very considerable.

It must surely appear from these circumstances that all M. de Chateaufieux proves is, that a man when he has a drill plough given him, may use it if it wants no repairs to great advantage comparatively with the common husbandry, as already set forth. But it must be very apparent that multitudes of new experiments are yet necessary to prove the New husbandry (supposing a drill plough invented as simple as possible) equal to the old, where the latter is practised in a more advantageous manner, than about M. de Chateaufieux*.

* Geneva.

The husbandry of dividing their farms into only two parts, is allowed in many countries to be very bad—The introduction of beans, peas, turneps and clover, render a fallow totally unnecessary by yielding ameliorating crops of equal value with even wheat itself. From these circumstances, I am inclined to believe, that the famous experiments of this very ingenious gentleman, are far from carrying conviction with them in any country, except where they were made—and in that, I should apprehend, the omission of *stating the expences* of each method must make all prudent husbandmen very cautious of engaging in such unknown practices. The experiments, however, on Lucerne (excepting again the article of expences) are very satisfactory.

C H E V R I E R.

An elegant and entertaining writer. The chief of his works are,

1. Le recueil de ces dames, 12mo. 1745.
2. Bi-hi, conte chinois, 12mo.
3. Cargula, parodie de Catilina.
4. Dissertation sur les progrès de la tragédie depuis les Grecs jusqu'à nous, 12mo. 1750.
5. Voyage de Ragliane en vers et en prose.
6. Poésies diverses, 12mo.
7. Les ridicules du siècle, 12mo. 1752.
8. Cela est singulier, histoire égyptienne, 12mo. 1752.
9. Maga-Kon, histoire Japonaise, 12mo. 1752.
10. Mémoires d'un honête femme, 12mo. 3 vols.
11. Essai historique sur le maniere de juger des hommes, 12mo. 1753.
12. Le quart d'heure d'une jolie femme, 12mo. 1753.
13. Mémoires

13. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire des hommes illustres de Lorraine, 12mo. 2 vols. 1754.
14. Observations sur le théâtre, 12mo. 1755.
15. Histoire de la campagne de 1757.
16. Histoire générale de Lorraine.
17. L'anti-Machiavélisme adapté aux circonstances de la guerre.
18. Réponse du Roi de Prusse à son frère, 12mo.
19. Dialogue du Prince Royal de Prusse.

C H A N V A L O N.

Well known for his Manuel des Champs, 8vo. 1764. a very complete compilation, the subjects judiciously chosen.

C H A M B R I E R.

His best work is the Mémoire sur la culture de l'Esparcette. In the Berne memoirs 1763, vol. 2d.

C H R I S T.

His Observations sur les Corvées. In the Berne memoirs 1764, vol. 1st. is a very valuable essay.

C H O M P R E.

His best pieces are,

1. La vie de Callisthène, philosophe à la cour d'Alexandre le Grand, 8vo. 1730.
2. La vie de Brutus premier consul à Rome, 8vo. 1730.

C L A I R A U T.

CLAIRAUT.

This most ingenious mathematician, in 1726, at the age of only twelve years, read to the academy of Sciences, a piece entitled,

1. Mémoire sur quatre nouvelles courbes géométriques——of his own invention. His succeeding works are——
2. Recherches sur les courbes à double courbure, 8vo.
3. Elemens de géometrie, 8vo. 1741.
4. Théorie de la figure de la terre, 8vo. 1743.
5. Tables de la lune calculées suivant la théorie de la gravitation universelle, 8vo. 1754.
6. Mémoires sur la comète, 8vo.
7. Réponse à quelques pièces dans lesquelles on attaque les mémoires sur la comète.

CLEMENT.

I range him in this catalogue, on account of his *Bibliothèque curieuse, historique et critique, ou catalogue raisonné des Livres difficiles à trouver*, 4to. 6 vols. 1750. 1756, a most useful work, which deserves imitation in every language.

COCHIN.

A most agreeable and masterly engraver, and architect. His works have very great merit: The chief are,

1. Observations sur les antiquités de la ville d'Herculanum, 12mo, 1755.
2. Lettre sur les peintures d'Herculanum.
3. Voyage

3. Voyage d'Italie, 12mo. 3 vols. 1758. A very capital collection of criticisms on the productions of the fine arts in Italy, except at Rome.

There is such an infinity of criticisms on the painters, and paintings of Italy, which are very far from giving just and accurate ideas of the subject, that M. Cochin's work is particularly valuable. His remarks come from an enlightened artist. He had every requisite to render his minutes complete: He was never cramped for time; as the end of his journey was an attentive view of whatever was worthy of observation: His expences were defrayed by the king, as the Marquis of Marigny fixed on him to attend the travels he made by the royal order—and as the original author of the journey was known, they of course were well received throughout Italy, and no civilities wanting: As the book has never been translated, and as it is highly worthy of your attention, I will make an extract or two, to give you an idea of its merit.

“ The Lombard school is that which has carried painting to its highest degree of perfection; the Roman had already given examples of greatness of manner, and of sublimity of design; but all the assistance that could be drawn from it, was bounded to an imitation of Raphael; who, though the greatest man that painting ever knew, if we consider that art was in its infancy, when he formed his school, was not the greatest painter, if I may venture to say so, that ever existed! His scholars, though several of them were of the first order, too servilely imitated his manner; they did not strike out any discoveries but what he taught them, and were unacquainted with any beauties in painting out of their master's walk: To the Carraches, and to their worthy scholars, it is that we

are indebted for this art, complete in all its parts: Raphael undoubtedly attained the summit of perfection in delicacy of design, noble ideas, beauty of stile in his heads, simplicity and elegance in his forms, in the choice of figures, and of draperies, and in the singular composition of his groupes; but he was unskilled in those noble effects produced by the Chiaro Oscuro, and a knowledge of the proper diffusion of the light: The art of forming a grand composition in such a manner that nothing can be taken away from it, without destroying the symmetry, is seldom met with in him, nor that delightful intermixture of light and shade, which throws over the whole piece, an air of serenity. Fondness for the sublime, frequently influenced him to suppress those beautiful details of truth, where nature is discoverable however embellished: Finally, if I may be allowed to say it, he was ignorant of the art of composing pieces whose general plan gives equal pleasure with a separate examination of every part: The school, in preserving the greatness of his manner, understood nothing but the art of designing, and was degenerating in the representative of an ideal beauty which has little resemblance to nature, while the true charm of painting, harmony and agreeableness in the picture, will perhaps be sought for in vain. The Carracci, after studying antiquity, as well as the greatest masters of their own times, comprehended that the true object of imitation was nature; and that all the suppositions of a beauty superior to hers were chimerical: These were the principles they taught their scholars, by the assistance of which they often surpassed their instructors, and produced those master-pieces of painting, which at this day are the objects both of our admiration, and imitation; such an air of truth is discernable

discernible in the principal masters of this school: as convinces us that they delineate nature in her genuine colours, though it is certain she seldom shews herself so perfectly beautiful: Annibal in his completest works, can never be surpassed, either for design, or that great, and animated character he gives them: No one has shew'd greater skill in the fore-short'ning; that steadiness and freedom of pencil are found in him, which, excepting in Corregio, was entirely unknown before his time; they painted carefully in regard to the engraving, and to incorporating the colours, but 'tis apparent they were unacquainted with that air of negligence, which, when the justness of the execution is not injured by it, is one of the most agreeable seductions of the art: He did not disdain introducing the most natural and familiar circumstances, which, formerly, they thought it meritorious to suppress, and which appear so graceful, when treated in a noble and easy manner. Beauties of a correspondent kind are discovered in Louis Carrache, though the truth is, they are disfigured by too gloomy a colouring, and too heavy a manner; no artist has surpassed him in the fine taste of his draperies, or in the beautiful choicel of the folds. Some of Augustine's pictures are likewise full of graces, but the scholars, these great genius's have formed, complete their glory.

Dominichino is to be admired for his science; for purity of design; the simplicity and beauty of stile in his heads, and in his draperies, and for the natural attitudes of his figures; we admire in him that perfection of finishing, which he has attended to whilst employed in the grandest subjects, an attention which some painters value themselves for their neglecting. In those pieces of his that are most esteemed, some of the heads are observed to

be as highly finished, as those in portraits; yet without the least constraint, by the skill he uses in making his details subordinate to the principal design. Let us just observe, that an erroneous opinion which prevailed, that historical painting does not admit of natural details, has introduced an idea into France, that there is a necessary difference of talents required to form an historical, and a portrait painter, a distinction unknown to the great masters. Hence it follows, that in portraits a too servile attention to finishing is required, which often makes the figure stiff; whilst the painters of history, on the contrary, are given too much liberty; what constitutes a finished picture, is not the mellowness of the pencil. There are pictures which ignorant persons call finished, where there is a deficiency in every one of the articles, that a painter well skilled in nature, and the foundations of his art, would have put into a single sketch.

Dominichino frequently offends by the dryness of his execution, and the faintness of his colouring: His figures sometimes want roundness; however there are some of his pictures where these defects are scarcely perceptible; and where it would be difficult to colour in a juster taste, or give better delineations than those of the principal figures, particularly the heads in the martyrdom of St. Agnes at Bologna, and that of St. Cecilia at Rome; it is true, that the works of this master possessed of an high degree of excellence are few, but they are master pieces.

Every species of painting is united in Guido! It may be said that his principal pieces are more properly stiled pictures, if I may be allowed the expression, and are more universally complete than

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any of his predecessors, or perhaps than any of his successors, the correctest designs full of grace and delicacy, the beautifullest heads that can be imagined, especially those of his women, and young men; no one has been able to surpass, or perhaps even equal that propriety, simplicity and nobleness he has given them; the freshness and beauty of his colouring are admirable, particularly in his earlier performances; and though, latterly, he fell into the defect of making his shades too dark, his half colouring is always excellent.

If he fails of character in his masculine figures, how well does he atone for that fault by that profusion of graces he so judiciously distributes. Few masters can be compared with him for beauty of pencil; his touches are always easy and lively, yet exact, none has succeeded better in draperies, or in neatness; his execution is attentive to particulars, without being a slave to them; all is formed with propriety and the most pleasing choice of subject; the general *agrément*, and sweet harmony of his pictures is one of the distinguishing marks of this excellent painter: Undoubtedly this part of the art has since been carried to equal perfection; it may be asserted that other masters have even excelled him, but, never was it seen, connected with so fine an assemblage of the essential qualities of a painter as are united in Guido; it would be difficult to cite a picture so perfect, in every requisite, as that in the Sampieri palace at Bologna, and which has been already mentioned, The representation of St. Peter weeping, 'tis impossible to desire any thing superior!

I shall finish the eulogium of this master by adding, that although Raphael excelled him in sublimity of character in his heads, and in the

grandeur of his ideas; that Annibal, and Domini-
chino, had something more magnificent in their
manner of designing; that Corregio, Titian, Van-
dyke, and Rubens, were greater colourists; yet
there are few artists, on supposition that the choice
was given them of whatever talents they desired to
possess, the property of any one master, who, when
they recollected what pleasure the works of Guido,
had afforded them, would not prefer his. With
what dignity of character, what strength, and what
softness of pencil, what boldness of colouring,
what freedom of manner does Guercino captivate
us. How graceful the stile of the heads in his
compositions! He borrows nothing from any of
the masters who preceded him, nor of his cotem-
poraries: He is entirely original; his are the
manly graces, with all the energy of painting!
What a collection of his fine performances are to
be seen at Bologna, above all what an amazing
picture is that of St. Petronille at Rome! where
is the painter that can be put in competition with
Guercino.

Albani, less in genius, and often even cold in
his composition; less a colourist, and almost with-
out freshness in his faint-shading; less characteris-
tical; with less knowledge of design, has, notwith-
standing, been ranked by posterity in the same
class with those great masters: This is owing to
his perfection in one talent; so true is it, that any
single essential part of the art of painting, carried
to its ultimate height of sublimity, is sufficient to
insure the attainment of the greatest fame: That
purity, and grace of design, especially in fine
heads, which is his peculiar excellence, will always
be the object of our admiration; if Guido grati-
fied the extent of our wishes, by his simple, deli-

cate, and refined graces, Albani has distinguished himself by those that are regular, noble, and judicious; this is that true beauty, whose model is not discoverable in nature, though there are several approximations towards it.

At Bologna are found the most beautiful works of this great master; those of his, in other places, are, for the most part, only pictures of the Easel; the same beauties are discernable in them, but we are better pleased to see them displayed in figures large as the life.

This city, is not less curious, to the lovers of painting, than that of Rome; though the latter contains a larger number of pictures; and though all the great Italian painters have embellished it with some of their works, nevertheless, Bologna with only her school, and those master-pieces it has produced, may be brought in competition with Rome, and in some respects bear away the prize. She has not only formed in her bosom the most celebrated of the Italian masters, but she has also treasured up the most excellent of their compositions; besides, how many remains are here seen of masters whose merit is of the first order, though, to say truth, the great reputation of the other superior genius's has buried it almost in oblivion: Such are Cavedone, Tiarini, and several others, whose works I have already done justice to. I am not afraid to advance, that a long residence in this city, may be as useful in forming a painter, as that of Rome; we may rely on the instructions of the Carrache's, when we observe what scholars they have formed, and how much these scholars vary from each other, and none of them slaves to the manner of their master; without doubt, it affords matter of astonishment that this diversity of graceful

graceful manner, should all spring from the same source, and is the highest commendation of that scientific method of instructing, employed by those great masters; they gave nature for their pattern, and they knew to caution their scholars against imbibing any prejudices in favour of that manner of appearances he presented to themselves; this will be thought still more extraordinary, if we examine attentively the other great Italian schools; the school of Raphael has so exactly followed his route, that there are more pictures met with in Europe, that his name may be given to, with great appearance of probability, than, he could possibly have executed, had his life been remarkably long: The Venetian, almost every where presents the same colouring; in a great many things, the same character of design; 'tis the same with the Flemish; particularly, in what relates to their great painters, who seem to copy every thing from Rubens; but the Lombard school offers us a re-union of the sublimest parts of painting, with a manner the most beautiful, and the most diversified.

The Venetian school is celebrated for its beauty of colouring; the great masters that she boasts, are *truely* the painters of Italy. Less subject to the correctness of design, they are more filled with enthusiasm in their compositions, are more learned in the knowledge of light, and bolder in its contrasts: they have employed without timidity the most lively colours of nature, and the finest tones, that is to say, the most ravishing charms that painting can express.—Titian, the most famous painter of that school, is certainly the greatest colourist that ever existed. Although one can't in all respects compare him to Rubens, it may

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nevertheless be said, that the magick of his colouring is more admirable and more true. But it has not been always equal, one finds several pictures of his in Italy, which though filled with beauty discovers nevertheless some roughness—it is at Venice one sees the greatest number of his works, and those of his best time—of a *largeness of pencil* really admirable, and of the most perfect colouring :—We cannot but admire in them, the truth, justness, character, and design;—qualities very rare among colourists.—

There is no master more astonishing than Tintoretto—the enthusiasm of his genius, and the fire of his pencil, are beyond all comparison—he surpasses all the bounds of reason, but one cannot refuse to his sentiments the admiration they excite.

He is no where truly known but at Venice—what we see of him elsewhere, seems but to give an idea of his faults—for he is never truly great, but in some capital pieces, which he has executed with all his fire—In them we find him with an execution the most astonishing, the finest knowledge of lights, and a tone of colouring, the most beautiful and happy.

The richest and finest genius for the rational composition of a picture, is the famous P. Veronese—no one has surpassed the fine ordonnance of his pieces—the ingenious connection of his groupes, or the manner in which he expands his lights—his colouring is bright, true, and rich, but we may reproach him with a too general *manner*, and a little of the purple in his shades—nevertheless he is worthy admiration, and presents the finest and freshest demi-tints. The facility, and, if I may use the expression—the *flower* of his pencil, offers the most attractive charms of painting. The magnificence of his drapery spreads a most
inexpressible

inexpressible agreeableness through all his works little known before his time.—He is reproached with having violated the laws of the costume, but how many beauties this happy licence has produced? of which we should be deprived, if we were yet in subjection to it. In abandoning in some circumstances the truth of a costume, in itself but little agreeable, known to very few people, and that very unequally, they are enriched with a great many *excellencies*, sensible to every eye—this loss, so little interesting, is it not more than sufficiently compensated? If in representing the most ancient subjects, he used the dresses of his own time—there followed not only a richness, and a charming variety of objects, but also an appearance of truth, one rarely sees in other masters.—By this means, he exposes none but objects of nature before our eyes—an advantage perhaps impossible for the power of imagination to supply. He does not submit himself to the severe choice of the character of antique heads—but he boldly introduces in his pictures the portraits of his friends, and heads that were known to his fellow citizens; from whence results an appearance of truth very satisfactory:—They believed they saw real men and such as they knew—in the mean while, altho' his heads are in some measure so many portraits, they are drawn in so beautiful and bold a manner, as to carry no servile ideas with them.

If I may be permitted to hazard 'a particular sentiment—perhaps on reflection it will be found that nature herself, which is known to all, is proper for painting, than those fine ideas which are sought with so much pains—which are so rarely found, and which are so difficult to unite with reality. Indeed it ought rather to be esteemed the essential of sculpture, which having fewer parts to

unite, and less resources to give pleasure, cannot dispense with it without failing in its design; whilst that of painting is answered in its first illusion—be that as it may—one may reckon P. Veronese in the highest rank of painters that have ever lived in Italy—and is one of those who have united most of the parts of painting.—

Georgione—Palma—Paduanino—the Bassans, Ricci, and many others—still augment the glory of this famous school.—Almost all the painters of Venice, have been colorists, which seems to proceed not only from the face of nature, which they imitate from the country round them, but likewise from their manner of study.

It is said that the custom of the Venetian school is to put a pencil in their hand as soon as they begin their studies; and that which seems most to confirm it—is the rarity of sculptors that come from this school ———

The study of design, so intermixed with the management of the pencil, and the assistance of colours, there results a free manner of design, but so uncertain that one almost sees the foundation of the colours, where it escapes from the contours being too much circumscribed. This is not the proper manner to form sculptors—where the essential merit is in the choice of fine forms, and the purity of contour. But this is the manner in which colorists are formed: It is the habit of never showing nature, but with the effects of colour, roundness, and lights, refracted or reflected, that creates the beauty of colouring, and displays the knowledge of the clear obscure. It is from this practice of mingling colours, which has been gained long since by approximation, that at length results the facility of rendering this inexplicable mechanism, obedient to the sentiments we are affected with at the sight of nature.—The art is

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of such an extent, that no one can command all the parts.—The time which is given to the study of the forms of nature, and in making an abstract of her colours, and their effects must be in some measure taken from that which would be necessary for the more important parts, to render the practice of them easy; and if we delivered ourselves to the charms that she sets forth on both sides—we must of necessity relax the severity of choice, and the exactitude of form. To add yet another reflection; nature seems to have divided her beauties in the objects she has formed; in general where she exhibits the finest forms, there the colours are weak—the beauty of colouring seems not to appear in full lustre, but in persons whom plumpness has a little changed the exactness of their shapes. On the contrary, the elegance and purity of contours, are rarely attended with that brilliancy, which is sought by painters who excel in colouring.—

It is certain, that the study of the masters of the Venetian school is very useful to artists, they may warm cold genius's, and perfect those whose natural taste leads them toward colouring:—it has its dangers like all *manners*, but those who first studied the schools of Rome and Lombardy, will be sufficiently fortified against them.—

Venice may yet boast of possessing the most skilful painters of all Italy—and such as may compare with the best of all Europe—those of whom we see the greatest number of works are Tiepolo, and Piazzetta; the finest genius, and most agreeable colouring, the greatest ease, and the most pleasing pencil, form the character of the first—near the same degree of merit is found in the second, except only colour, which is less beautiful, but which is compensated by a manner more large,

large, if one may reproach them with some faults, as has been remarked in the examen of their works, they are redeemed by their beauties.—

4. Dissertation sur l'effet de la lumiere dans les ombres, 8vo.

COMBES.

His *Traité de la culture du Pêcher*, 12mo. 1745, and his *L'école du Jardin Potager*, 2 vols. 12mo. 1750, are useful works.

CONDAMINE.

Well known by the reputation of his travels, which have really been wonderfully extensive : In proportion as men of enlightened understandings and philosophic dispositions, travel, the ridiculous fables of giants, monsters, and wonders, of all kinds, will vanish : and the world be undeceived in many ideas perhaps yet current. This ingenious gentleman is the author of several valuable pieces.

1. Distance of the Tropicks, London, 1744.
2. Extracto de observaciones en al viage del Rio de Amazonas, 1745.
3. Relation abrégée d'un voyage fait dans l'intérieur de l'Amerique méridionale, 8vo. 1745.
4. Lettre à madame * * * * sur l'emeute populaire excitée en la ville de Cuença au Peron en 1739, contre les académiciens des sciences, 8vo.
5. Journal du Voyage fait par ordre du roi à l'équateur, 4to. 1751.
6. Mesure des trois premiers degrés du méridien dans l'Hémisphere austral, 4to. 1751.
7. Histoire des pyramides de Quito, 1751.
8. Supplément au Journal historique du Voyage à l'équateur, 4to. 1752, 2 vols.
9. Mémoire

9. Mémoire sur l'innoculation de la petite Verole,
12mo. 1754.
10. Lettre sur l'éducation, 8vo.
11. Mémoire (second) sur l'innoculation de la
petite Verole, 1759.
12. Voyage d'Italie, 12mo. 1762.

CONDILLAC.

Learned, philosophical, and agreeable, his works are read with instruction and pleasure, in most of the European languages.

1. Essai sur l'origine des connoissances humaines,
12mo. 2 vols. 1746.
2. Traité des Systèmes, 12mo. 2 vols. 1749.
3. Traité des Sensations, 12mo. 2 vols. 1754.
4. Traité sur les animaux, 12mo. 1755.

COURRAYER.

Refugée at Oxford; best known by his Dissertation sur la validité des ordinations des Anglois, 2 vols. 12mo. 1723. and his defence of the same, 4 vols. 12mo. 1726.

COYER.

A very sensible and ingenious writer. The principal of his pieces, are

1. L'année merveilleuse.
2. Découverte de la Pierre philosophale.
3. La Magie démontrée.
4. Plaisir pour le peuple.
5. Lettre à un grand.
6. Découverte de L'Isle à Frivole.
7. Edition of the foregoing under the title of
Bagatelles Morales, 12mo. 1754.
8. Dissertation sur la difference des deux anciennes religions, la Grecque et la Romaine.

9. Dis-

9. Differtation sur la nature du peuple, 12mo.
1755.
10. La Noblesse commerçante, 12mo. 1756.
11. Défense de la Noblesse commerçante, 1757.
12mo.
12. Histoire de Sobieski Roi de Pologne, 12mo.
3 vols. 1761.

C R E B I L L O N.

His theatrical works are ranked in France among those of Corneille, Racine, and Voltaire: A very magnificent edition of them, was printed at the Louvre, in 1750, 2 vols. 4to.

C R E B I L L O N.

Son of the preceding. Author of a great number of tales and romances extremely well composed—lively and entertaining, but too licentious.

1. Lettres de la marquise de * * * * au comte de * * * *, 12mo, 2 vols. 1732. 1739, and 1753.
2. Tanzaï et Néadarné, histoire Japonaise, 12mo. 2 vols. 1734, and 1758.
3. Les egaremens du cœur et de l'esprit, 12mo. 1736, &c.
4. Le Sopha, conte moral, 12mo. 2 vols. 1744. and 1763, &c. The concluding adventure is painted in the most lively manner—the description and language equal to any thing. What pity that such circumstances should attend indecency.
5. Les heureux Orphelins, histoire imitée de l'anglois, 22mo. 2 vols. 1754.
6. Ah quel conte! 12mo. 1754.
7. La Nuit et le Moment ou les Matines de Cythere, dialogue, 12mo. 1745.

8. Le

8. Le Canapé couleur de Feu, 12mo. 1745.
9. Le Hazard du Coin du Feu, 12mo. 1763.
10. L'Ecumoir, 12mo.
11. Tant mieux pour elle, 12mo.

C R E V I E R.

1. Continuation de l'histoire Romaine de M. Rollin, 12mo. 16 vols. 1748.
 2. Histoire des Empereurs Romains, 12mo. 12 vols. 1740.
- Are his best works.

C O S T A.

The marquis of. His Essai sur la Recolte des Grains, in the Berne memoirs, 1663, vol. 3d. is a sensible and ingenious piece.

D A L I B A R D,

- Madame.*
1. Le Porte feuille rendu, ou lettres historiques, 12mo. 1749.
 2. Les caprices du fort, ou histoire d'Emilie, 12mo. 2 vols. 1750.
 3. Recueil de Poesies, 12mo. 1751.
 4. Theatrical pieces.

D A N G E U L.

His knowledge of the principles, and practice of trade and commerce, is not inconsiderable.

1. Rétablissement des manufactures et du commerce d'Espagne, traduit de l'Espagnol, 12mo. 1753.
2. Remarques sur les avantages, et désavantages, de la France, et de la grande Bretagne, par rapport au commerce, 12mo. 1754.

D A Q U I N.

D A Q U I N:

Chiefly known by his *Lettres sur les Hommes célèbres dans les sciences, la littérature, et les Beaux Arts sous le regne de Louis XV.* 12mo. 2 vols. 1752.

D A R C.

An entertaining, lively, and agreeable writer: Several of his pieces are very well known.

1. *Lettres d'Osman*, 12mo. 3 vols. 1753.
2. *Le Palais du Silence*, 12mo. 1754.
3. *Le Roman du jour pour servir à l'histoire du siècle*, 12mo. 1754.
4. *Mes Loïfirs; avec un discours sur l'Esprit philosophique*, 12mo. 1756.
5. *La Noblesse militaire, ou le patriote François*, 12mo. 1756.

This piece made some noise in France; it was composed in answer to the Abbé Coyer's *noblesse commerçant*: One or two short passages in it, I shall give you, as it never was translated, and as they most strongly characterise the excessive vanity of the nation—and display the general ideas of the noblesse in France, as to all mercantile objects.——“ See the grenadiers out-running their leaders, who find it difficult to follow them, to throw themselves into a covert-way, spite of the death which flies from every quarter! See them tear down the pallisades, chase the enemy from travers to travers—and then in swimming over the fossée, in defiance of all the fire of the works, and penetrating with them in the ardor of pursuit even to the heart of the place. Do you think the enemy asks, if these heroes be plebeians or gentlemen?——Yes; M. le Chevalier—the enemy may ask it, and be answered by all

all the nations of the earth as often "Plebeans!"
 —as "Gentlemen!" Every war, every battle,
 every skirmish, gives proof of as desperate courage
 in the lowest of the people, as in the highest
 —and I believe more—for possibly it might not
 be any difficult matter to prove, that the more
 enlightened mind, that is stored with millions of
 ideas, cannot *in general* have that ferocity of soul,
 that unbounded courage, which strikes one so frequently
 in the common soldiers. The following prophetic strain of *à la noblesse*, was surely penned
 under the influence of a fatal planet—"But I
 hear the murmurs of the nation, millions of voices
 crying to arms: The king is offended; the nation
 is insulted. I shall see you despoil yourselves of
 those vain ornaments, which can only be permitted
 in the heart of repose. Fortune, pleasures,
 friends, parents, you quit all for running to glory:
 In fine, you are men.—Nation! too confident
 in your naval forces, and the extent of your
 commerce! See our Noblesse impatient to fly to
 punish your audacity, the effect of your jealousy.
 The fire which shines in their eyes, is the signal
 given you by *a people of heroes*! France! See your
 children assembled on the coasts to fly to avenge
 you—they are your surest support—they will never
 disappoint your attention. The last of your citizens
 will yet defend you against the whole world,
 armed for your ruin: If he cannot flatter himself
 with conquest—he will at least with death, and
 his last thought shall not be foreign from your
 welfare. All your children are of the blood of
 Turenne. They value not riches, if they cost them
 their honour—they reject happiness itself, if it is
 not attached to glory!"

6. Réflexions d'une Provinciale—à Rousseau de
 Geneve, 12mo.

DENIS.

DENIS.

Madame. Niece to M. de Voltaire, from which relationship she is better known, than by her Mauvais exemple produit autant de Vertus que de vices, nouvelle Espagnol.

DECOPPET.

His *Essai d'une collection des noms Vulgaires on Patois des Principales Plantes de la Suisse*, is one of the most useful pieces of its kind, ever published; and greatly wanting in most other countries. It is published in the *Berne memoirs*, 1764, vol. 2d.

DECHAMPS.

His *Vie des peintres Flamands, Allemands, Hollandois*, 8vo. 4 vols, 1764. is a work of use, and well executed.

DESLANDES.

His works are valuable: They are correct and entertaining.

1. *Landolii poemata*, 1713.
2. *Réflexions sur les grands hommes qui sont morts en plaisantant*, 12mo. 1713.—1732. and 1759.
3. *L'Art de ne point s'ennuyer*, 12mo. 1715.
4. *Nouveau Voyage d'Angleterre*, 12mo. 1717.
5. *Histoire critique de la philosophie*, 12mo. 4 vols. 1742, and 1752.
6. *Pigmalion, ou la statue animée*, 12mo. 1742.
7. *L'Optique des mœurs*, 12mo. 1742.
8. *Essai sur le marine et sur le commerce*, 8vo. 1742.

9. *Récueil*

9. Récueil de différens traités de physique, et d'histoire naturelle, 12mo. 3 vols. 1748.
10. Essai sur la marine des anciens et sur les vaisseaux de guerre, 12mo. 1748.
11. Lettre à M. * * * trésorier de France, 12mo. 1748.
12. Histoire de la Princesse de Montferrat, 12mo. 1749.
13. Lettres sur la construction des Vaisseaux, 12mo.
14. La Fortune, histoire critique, 12mo. 1751.
15. Traité sur les différens degrés de la certitude morale par rapport aux connoissances humaines, 12mo.
16. Lettre critique sur l'histoire navale d'Angleterre, 12mo. 1752.
17. Poeta Rusticantis litteratum otium, 12mo. 1753.
18. La Vie de M. Constance premier ministre du Roi de Siam, 12mo. 1755.

DESMAREST.

Well known for his hypothesis, contained in his Dissertation sur l'ancienne jonction de l'Angleterre à la France. This piece carried the prize of the academy of Amiens, 12mo. 1751.

DESPORTES.

A painter of merit. He is ranked here for two pieces, judicious and well wrote: Vie de M. le Brun premier peintre du Roi.—Discours sur l'état de la peinture et de la sculpture en France, &c. at the head of the Vies des cinq premiers peintres du Roi, 12mo. 1751.

DESTOUCHES.

One of the most celebrated dramatic poets of France: His comedies are natural, lively, and

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characteristical, Oeuvres de Theatre, 12mo. 10 vols. 1758.

D H E G U E R T Y.

His Effai sur les intérêts du commerce maritime, 12mo. 1754, is a judicious piece.

D I D E R O T.

One of the most noted authors at present in France: He has compiled, translated, and composed, numerous works, many of which it is imagined are unknown. The pieces which he does not disavow are the following.

1. Histoire de Grèce traduite de l'anglois de Stanyan, 3 vols. 12mo. 1743.
2. Principes de la philosophie morale, ou essai sur le mérite et la vertu, 12mo. 1745.
3. Dictionnaire universel de medecine, 6 vols. folio, 1746. In conjunction with Eidous and Toussaint.
4. Mémoires sur differens sujets de mathématiques, 8vo. 1748.
5. Lettre sur les sourds et les meuts, 12mo. 1751.
6. Pensées sur l'interprétation de la nature, 12mo. 1754.
7. He is one of the editors of the Encyclopædia, and composed a considerable part of it.
8. Lettre sur les aveugles, à l'usage de ceux qui voyent, 12mo. 1749.
9. Les Bijoux indiscretés, 12mo.
10. Les Pensées philosophiques, 12mo.
11. Histoire et le secret de la peinture en cire.
12. Le Fils Naturel, comedy.
13. Le Pere de Famille, comedy. These dramatic pieces are of the most agreeable species—most naturally imagined, and elegantly composed.

14. De la Poësie dramatique. Published at the end of Le Pere de Famille. It is a very lively essay; full of penetrating remarks and fallies of imagination. He has a few observations on domestic tragedy, which are remarkable.——“ It is sometimes demanded if domestic tragedy ought to be written in verse? And I answer in the negative, without knowing why. And yet comedy is generally composed in verse—heroic tragedy is written in verse—Why therefore must not this? But does not this specie require a particular stile, of which we have not a clear idea? In which, the life of the subject, and the strength of the interest reject, the language of symmetry? Is not the situation of the personages too much like our own, to allow of a regular harmony? But to return. If we throw the history of Charles the XII. into verse, it will not be less a history. If we reduce the Henriade to prose, it will not be less a poem. But the historian is to write purely, and simply what has happened—what may not always flow naturally from the characters, however possible—and what neither moves, nor interests, except in the *possibility* of being both moving and interesting. On the contrary, the poet composes what in his opinion must affect the most. He imagines the events. He feigns the discourses. He changes history to the standard of his fancy. The important point with him, is to be wonderful without ceasing to be probable. This is what he obtains, in conforming to the order of nature, when she gives birth to extraordinary events, and preserves them by common circumstances.—Such is the function of the poet. What a distance between the versifyer and him. But do not imagine that I despise the first: His talent is rare. But if you make the versifier an Apollo, the poet, with me, will be an Hercules.

les. Suppose a lyre in the hand of Hercules, you will not reject him for an Apollo. Give Apollo a club, throw on his shoulders the hide of the Lyon of Nemæa—you will not mistake him for an Hercules.——From hence we find that a tragedy in prose, is as much *a poem*, as one in verse; and it is the same with a comedy or romance; but then the end of poetry, is more general than that of history. We read in history what a man of the character of Henry IV. did, and suffered; but how many more wonderful circumstances, possible for him to have performed and undergone, of a nature conformable to his character, which history offers not, but which poetry imagines!——Imagination! That's the quality, without which there cannot be a poet, nor a philosopher, nor a man of wit, nor a reasonable being, nor a man*.

DIXMERIE.

Author of innumerable poetical squibs, in the literary Journals, particularly the *Mercure*. His *Contes philosophiques et moraux*, 12mo. 2 vols. 1765. are far from being equal to Marmontel's. The best of them, the *Huron Réformateur*, he tells us, was printed and inserted against his will! It is in ridicule of Rousseau, but inferior to Marmontel's on the same subject.

DOXA T.

His *Mémoire sur le Labourage*, in the *Berne memoirs*, 1763. vol. 3d. is a practical, sensible, and judicious essay.

DUCLOS.

An agreeable writer, well known by several very ingenious works. He has wrote

* Page 32. 12mo. edit.

1. Le confessions du Comte de * * * *, 12mo. 2 vols. 1741.
2. Acajou, Conte, 4to. and 12mo. 1744.
3. Histoire de la Baronne de Luz, 12mo. 1744.
4. Histoire de Louis XI, 12mo. 4 vols. 1745.
5. Considérations sur les mœurs de ce siècle, 12mo. 1751.
6. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire des Mœurs, 12mo. 1752.
7. Grammaire générale et raisonnée (de Port Royal) avec des remarques, 12mo. 1754.
8. Theatrical pieces.

DUPIN.

His political works abound with many valuable observations: His best pieces are,

1. Réfutation du Livre de l'Esprit des Loix, en ce qui concerne le commerce, et les finances, 12mo. 3 vols. 1749.
2. Mémoire sur les bleds, 4to. 1748.

DURAND.

A voluminous writer: His best works are his translations from Pliny, and his Histoire de seizième siècle, 12mo. 4 vols. 1734.

DUPLESSIS.

His Memoire sur les prairies naturelles, is judicious. It is calculated chiefly for the province of Champagne.

DUPONT.

His piece de l'Exportation et de l'Importation des grains, read to the Royal Society of Agriculture at Soissons, is very valuable, he gives a multitude of reasons to prove the expediency, and even necessity, of allowing, for ever, in France a free trade in corn: His reasoning is indeed unan-

swerable—but does not comprehend all the subject offers.

E I D O U S.

Has composed and translated a great many works, several of them, of no inconsiderable merit. He is best known by the articles of heraldry in the Encyclopædia,

E S P A G N A C.

1. Essai sur la Science de la guerre, 8vo. 3 vols. 1751.
2. Journal historique de la dernière campagne du Roi en 1746, 8vo. 1747.
3. Campagne de l'armée du Roi en 1747, 8vo. 1747.
4. Essai sur les grandes opérations de la guerre pour servir de suite à l'Essai sur la Science de la guerre, 8vo. 4 vols. 1755.

E S P I A R D.

His *L'Esprit des Nations*, is a well written piece; but all political essays which have so near a connection with the spirit of laws, lie under a wonderful disadvantage, from the vast superiority of Montesquieu's works.

E S P I E.

The count of. Well known for his *Maniere de rendre toutes sortes d'édifices incombustibles*, 12mo. 1754.

E S T E V E.

A lively and agreeable author: His knowledge is considerable, and his taste elegant.

1. *L'Origine de Univers*, 12mo. 1748.
2. *La Toilete du Philosophie*, 12mo.
3. *Nou-*

3. Nouvelle découverte du Principe de l'harmonie.
4. L'Esprit des Beaux Arts, 2 vols. 12mo. 1753.
5. Lettre à un ami, sur l'exposition des Tableaux au Louvre, 1753.
6. Traité de la diction, 12mo. 1755.
7. Histoire générale et particulière de l'astronomie, 3 vols. 12mo. 1755.
8. Mémoires contre M. le Chevalier de Causans, sur la quadrature du cercle.
9. Lettres à un partisan du bon goût sur l'exposition des tableaux, 1755.
10. Nouveaux dialogues sur les arts, 12mo. 1755.

E X P I L L Y.

Best known by his geographical and astronomical works, and particularly by his Description historique—géographique des Isles Britanniques. Every thing concerning those islands, are here treated in a multitude of divisions and subdivisions. Situation, extent, soil, produce, rivers, ports, revenues, taxes, forces, government, laws, sciences, arts, commerce, religion, politicks, disposition, virtues, vices, &c. &c. &c.

E M P O R T E S.

Le Gentilhomme Cultivateur, ou corps complet d'Agriculture, traduit de l'Anglois de M. Hale, 10 vols. 4to. and 12mo.—A most laborious translation (with notes) of a work not worth reading; because of no authority. It was likewise translated into German, and printed at Hamburg. M. Pagan quotes it under the title of *cet excellent ouvrage d'agriculture*.

E R N E S T.

Author of Mémoire sur le Colfat. Berne memoirs, 1764, vol. 2d.

ESTAING.

The count d'. Better known for the gallantry and courage, with which he attacked, and carried, the English settlements on the Island of Sumatra, but while a prisoner on his honour—than for his agreeable composition entituled Les Egaremens de Julie.

FAVART.

Chiefly known by his theatrical pieces, of which he has wrote great numbers, besides Les Conquêtes du Roi, 4to.

FAVART.

Madame. Wife of the preceding, Composes for the theatre,

FAVIER.

1. Le Spectateur Littéraire, 12mo.
2. Essai historique et politique sur le gouvernement, présent de la Hollande, 12mo. 2 vols. 1748.

FEBVRE.

A voluminous editor: His own pieces are but of little account, except, Le Pour et Contre, from N°. 240. to 269. vol. 19.

FELICE.

His Observations et decouvertes sur le Chanvre et sa preparation, in the Berne memoirs, 1765. vol. 1st. is judicious and experimental.

FLOQUET.

His treatises, memoirs, &c. on the canals in the southern

southern provinces of France, are esteemed, and would be useful in any language.

F O N T.

His taste in the fine arts, is just and elegant, but he has ventured many hypotheses, which will scarcely be allowed.

1. Réflexions sur la peinture, et les causes de son état présent en France, 12mo, 1746.
2. Lettres de l'auteur des Réflexions sur la peinture, 12mo. 1747.
3. Lettre sur l'histoire du Parlement d'Angleterre, 8vo. 1748.
4. L'Ombre du Grand Colbert, le Louvre, et la ville de Paris, 12mo. 1749, and 1752.
5. Remercement des habitans de ville de Paris à sa Majesté au sujet de l'achèvement du Louvre, 8vo. 1749.
6. Lettre sur Cénie à madame de Graffigny, 12mo. 1751.
7. Sentimens sur quelques ouvrages de peinture, sculpture, &c.
8. Examen d'un essai sur l'architecture, 8vo. 1753.

F O N T E N E L L E.

A very celebrated french author of considerable merit, but not of such rare excellency as the Abbée Trublet would have the world imagine. He composed one of the best of his works, on the system of Descartes, and living a complete century, he saw the foundation of his fabrick, overturned by the genius of Newton.

1. His first work was a poem, which gained the french academy's prize in 1675.
2. Dialogues des Morts.
3. Jugement de Pluton.
4. Des Lettres Galantes.

5. Histoire

5. Histoire du Romieu de Provence.
6. Des Discours sur differens sujets.
7. Vie de M. Corneille.
8. Histoire des Oracles.
9. Des Eglogues.
10. La Pluralité des Mondes, and other pieces, in 8 vols. 12mo.
11. La Géométrie de l'Infini, 4to. 1724.
12. Dictionnaire des Sciences, 2 vols. folio. 1732. begun by T. Corneille.
13. Histoire et Mémoires de l'Académie royale des sciences, depuis 1699 jusqu'en 1742, avec les éloges des academiciens, 4to. 48 vols.
14. Eloges des academiciens de l'Académie royale des sciences, 12mo. 4 vols. 1742.
15. Théorie des tourbillons cartésiens, avec des réflexions sur l'attraction, 12mo. 1752.
16. Preface des infiniments petits du marquis de l'hôpital.
17. Dissertation sur la liberté, 4 vols.

F O R B O N N A I S.

One of the best political writers in France, on the subject of commerce. He is the author of a great number of pieces; of which the following are the best.

1. Considérations sur les finances d'Espagne, 12mo. 1753.
2. Le Négociant Anglois, traduit de l'Anglois, 12mo. 2 vols. 1753.
3. Théorie et pratique du commerce, et de la marine, traduit de l'Espagnol, 4to. 1753.
4. Elémens du commerce, 2 vols. 12mo. 1754.
5. Questions sur le commerce des François au Levant, 12mo. 1755.
6. Examen des avantages et des défavantages de la

la prohibition des toiles peintes, 12mo.
1755.

7. L'Examen de l'Esprit des Loix.
8. Lettre à M. Négociant de Lyon, 12mo.
9. Recherches et considérations sur les finances, 8vo.
10. Lettre d'un Banquier, 12mo.

FORMEY.

This gentleman, I think, I may assert is at least one of the most voluminous authors in Europe. There may be some writers in the german language, that equal him in this respect, but very few, either in France, Spain, Italy or England.

1. Recueil de Pièces sur les affaires de l'élection du Roi de Pologne, 4to. 1732.
2. Bibliotheque Germanique journal Littéraire d'Allemagne, et nouvelle Bibliotheque Germanique, from 1733 to the present times,
3. Le Fidele fortifié par la Grace, 4to. 1736.
4. Ducatiana, 8vo. 2 vols. 1738.
5. Mercure et Minerve, 1738.
6. Amusemens Littéraires moraux et politiques, 1738.
7. Sermons de M. Reinbeck, traduits de l'Allemande, 1738.
8. Correspondance entre deux amis sur la succession de Juliers, et de Bergues, 4to. 1738.
9. Histoire de la succession de Juliers, et de Bergues, 4to. 1738.
10. Sermons sur divers textes de l'écriture Sainte, 8vo. 1739.
11. Remarques historiques sur les médailles et les monnoyes, traduit de l'Allemand de M. Keehler, 4to. 1740.
12. Journal de Berlin, 4to. 1740.

13. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire et au droit public de Pologne, traduit du Latin de Lengnich, 8vo. 1741.
14. Vie de M. Jean Philippe Baratier, 8vo. 1741.
15. La Belle Wolfienne, 8vo. 6 vols. 1741, and 1753.
16. Oeuvres de François Villon, avec des notes, 8vo. 1742.
17. Several articles in the Encyclopædia.
18. L'Anti St. Pierre, 8vo. 1742.
19. Sermon sur la Paix, 8vo. 1742.
20. Réflexions philosophiques sur l'immortalité de l'ame raisonnable, traduit de l'Allemand de M. Reinbeck, 8vo. 1744.
21. La Balance de l'Europe, traduit du Latin de M. Kahle, 8vo. 1744.
22. Histoire et mémoires de l'académie royale des sciences et belles lettres de Prusse, 4to. 20 vols. 1746, and 1766.
23. Panégyrique du Roi, 8vo. 1745.
24. Sermon sur les gratuités de l'éternel, 8vo. 1746.
25. Projet d'un établissement en faveur des pauvres, 4to. 1740.
26. Mémoire pour l'établissement d'un école de Charité, 4to. 1747.
27. Sermons pour la dédicace de cette école, 4to. 1747.
28. Relations de ladite école, 18 vols.
29. Medulla Wolfiana, 8vo. 1746.
30. Conseiles pour former une Bibliotheque, 8vo. 1746. 1751. 1755. 1756.
31. Essai sur la nécessité de la Révélation, 1747.
32. La Logique des Vraisemblances, 1747.
33. Recherches sur les Elémens de la matiere, 12mo. 1747.
34. Traité des dieux et du monde, par Salluste le philosophe, 8vo. 1748.
35. L'idée,

35. L'idée, la règle, et le modele de la perfection;
en trois sermons, 8vo. 1748.
36. Exposition abrégée du plan du roi pour la
Réformation de la justice, 8vo. 1748.
37. Epistola ad Emin. Card. Querinum, 4to.
1749.
38. Pensées Raisonnables opposées aux Pensées
Philosophiques, 8vo. 1749, 1756.
39. Lettre de M. Gervaise Holmes à l'auteur de
la Lettre sur les aveugles, 8vo. 1750.
40. Vindiciæ Reformatorem, 8vo. 1750.
41. Bibliotheque impartiale, 1750, 16 vols. 1766.
42. Le Systême de vrai bonheur, 8vo. 1750,
1751.
43. Essai sur la perfection, 8vo. 1751.
44. Examen de l'usure, 8vo. 1751.
45. Dedicace du Dictionnaire de Menage, folio,
2 vols. 1750.
46. Le Philosophe Chrétien, 4 vols. 1756.
47. La Théorie de la fortune, 8vo. 1751.
48. Lettres sur la Prédication, 1753.
49. Mélanges Philosophiques, 12mo. 2 vols.
1754.
50. Catalogue Raisonné de la libraire — d'etienne
de Bordeaux, 8vo. 4 vols. 1754.
51. La comtesse Suedoise, traduit de Gellert,
8vo. 1754.
52. Abrége d'histoire universelle par M. la Croze
revû et continue, 8vo. 1754.
53. Examen philosophique de la liaison réelle
qu'il y a entre les sciences, et les mœurs,
8vo, 1755.
54. L'Abeille du Parnasse, 8vo. 10 vols. 1750.
55. Sermons prononcés dans quelques circonstan-
ces extraordinaires, 8vo. 1755.
56. Journal Epistolaire, 8vo. 1755.
57. Le Réveil d'Epimenide avec d'autres pieces,
8vo. 1755.

58. Catechisme raisonné, 8vo. 1756.
 59. Essai sur le Beau par le P. André, avec un discours préliminaire et des réflexions sur le goût, 8vo. 1756.
 60. Le triomphe de l'évidence, 8vo. 2 vols. 1756.
 61. L'Abbrégé du droit de la nature et des gens de M. Wolf.
 62. Traduction du Prædium Rusticum de Vor-
miere, 8vo.
 63. Eloge des Académiciens de Berlin.
 64. Avantages de la Vieillesse, 12mo. 1757.
 65. Consolations pour les personnes valétudinaires,
8vo. 1757.
 66. Encyclopedie portative, 12mo. 1757.
 67. Monument à la mémoire de la fille la plus
cherie, 12mo. 1757.
 68. De la Mort.
 69. Sermon à l'occasion de la victoire de Prague.
 70. Lettres sur l'état présent des sciences.
 71. Principes de morale deduits de l'usage des
facultés, 12mo. 2 vols. 1762.
 72. Le Philosophe Payen, 12mo. 3 vols. 1762.
 73. Discours philosophiques de Maxime de Tyr.
traduits du Grec, 12mo. 1764.
 74. Principes de morale appliquées aux determi-
nations de la Volonté, 12mo. 2 vols. 1765.
- And many others.

FRANCHEVILLE.

Is the author of a great number of pieces which have been well received: The best are,

1. Histoire générale et particuliere des finances, contenant le Tarif de 1664, 2 vols. 4to. 1738. and 1746.
2. Histoire de la Compagnie des Indes, 1738. 4to. part of a work of 40 vols. 4to. the publication

blication of which was interrupted by his being obliged to fly his country.

3. Relation curieuse de plusieurs pays nouvellement découverts, 8vo. 1741.
4. Histoire des premières expéditions de Charlemagne, 8vo. 1741.
5. Le Spectateur Allemagne, 12mo. 1743.
6. L'Observateur Hollandois, 8vo. 1745.
7. Nouveau catalogue de bons fruits publié en faveur des amateurs, 12mo. 1753.

FRÉDÉRIC V.

King of Prussia. This monarch's *Mémoires* pour servir à l'Histoire de Brandebourg, is a work which stood in no need of a royal name to recommend it: It has genuine merit. His Character of Voltaire is extremely lively, and full of wit. His poetical pieces, The Oeuvres de Philosophe Sans Souci (if, as it has been said, they are really his) have wonderful poetic merit—There are few pieces of poetry in the French language equal to them. But some of the sentiments are very reprehensible. The following short extracts will give you an idea of the moral doctrines contained in them.

Le Sage de sang froid doit regarder la mort;
Des maux désespérés son secours nous délivre,
Il n'est plus de jourmens dès qu'on cesse de
vivre;
Qui connaît le trépas ne le fuit ni le craint.

De l'avenir, cher Keith, jugeons par le passé,
Comme avant que je fusse il n'avait point
pensé,
De même après ma mort quand routes mes
parties

Par

Par la corruption seront anéanties
 Par un même destin il ne pensera plus ;
 Non, rien n'est plus certain soyons-en convain-
 cus,

Dès que nous finissons notre ame est éclipsee.
 Elle est en tout semblable à la flamme elancée
 Qui part du bois ardent dont elle se nourrit,
 Et dès qu'il tombe en cendre elle baisse et
 périt.

F R E R O N.

Better known by criticizing the works of others, than by producing good ones of his own. He is the author of the *Lettres sur quelques ecrits*, 12mo. 13 vols. and the continuation under the title of *L'Année Littéraire*, published periodically.

F R A N C E.

His *Réflexions sur les Labours de la haute Champagne*, is a judicious work abounding with many just remarks on the agriculture of that province. His *Essai sur la Culture des Sainfoin en Haute Champagne*, is likewise a valuable piece.

F R E Z I E R.

Best known by his *Voyage de la Mer du Sud aux côtes Chili et du Perou fait en 1712, 1713, 1714*. 4to. 1716.

G A L I E N.

Madame. *Apologie des Dames*, appuyée sur l'histoire, 12mo. 1736.

G A L L I M A R D.

His mathematical works are much esteemed in France. They are numerous.

G A L I S.

G A L I S S O N N I E R E.

Marquis de la. Much better known by his commanding against admiral Byng, than by his *Mémoires sur les limites de l'Acadie*, 4to. 2 vols. 1754. 3 vols. 1755.

G A M A C H E S.

His best works are,

1. *Astronomie physique*, 4to. 1740.
2. *Nouveau système du mouvement*, 12mo, 1721.

G A R E N G E O T.

His essays in Surgery are well known, and much valued.

G A U F R I D I.

Baron de. His *Réfutation des Pensées Philosophiques par les seules lumieres de la Raison*, 12mo, 1751, have merit—but are a million of degrees behind M. Diderot.

G A U T I E R.

Best known by his valuable miscellany, entitled *Observations sur l'histoire naturelle, sur la physique, et sur la peinture*, 4to. 4 vols. 12mo. 6 vols. 1752.

G O D I N.

His *Tables astronomiques*, 4to. and his *machines and inventions approuvées par l'académie des Sciences*, 6 vols. 4to. 1735, are well esteemed.

G O M E Z I

Madame. An agreeable and most entertaining writer: possessed of a warm and lively imagination, which rendered her fully equal to all the genius of Romance.

1. Lettre sur le poeme du Clovis de St. Didier, 8vo. 1725.
2. Histoire secrette de la conquête de Grenade, 12mo. 1723.
3. Oeuvres mêlées contenant ses tragédies et autres ouvrages, 12mo. 1724.
4. Anecdotes Persannes, 2 vols. 12mo. 1727.
5. Le Triomphe de l'Eloquence, 12mo. 1730.
6. Entretiens nocturnes de Mercure et de la Renommée, 12mo. 1731.
7. La jeune Alcidiâne, 3 vols. 12mo. 1733.
8. Histoire d'Osman Empereur de Turcs, 12mo. 2 vols. 1734.
9. Les Cent nouvelles, 12mo. 18 vols. 1732.
10. Journées amusantes, 12mo. 8 vols. 1733.
11. Histoire du Comte d'Oxford, 12mo. 1737.
12. Crementine Reine de Sanga, 12mo. 2 vols. 1740.
13. La Belle Assemblée, 12mo. 4 vols. 1750.
14. Theatrical pieces.

G O U C E T.

A writer of great reputation: his historical researches are of authority, and well composed. His best works are,

1. Supplément au Dictionnaire de Moreri, 2 vols. folio, 1735.
2. Nouveau Supplément au Dictionnaire de Moreri, folio, 2 vols. 1749.
3. Bibliothèque des Auteurs Ecclésiastiques du dix-huitième Siecle, 8vo. 2 vols. 1736.

4. De

4. De l'état des sciences en France depuis la Mort de Charlemagne jusqu'à celle du Roi Robert, 12mo. 1737. This piece carried the prize of the academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres.
5. Discours sur le renouvellement des études depuis le quatorzième siècle, 4to.
6. L'Histoire de la poésie François.
7. Bibliothèque François, ou Histoire de la littérature François, 18 vols. 4to.
8. L'Origine des loix, arts et sciences, 4to. 3 vols. 1758. The best of his works, and one of the most useful the age has produced.

G O U D A R.

I know not of any piece he is the author of, except the *Pensées Diverses*, 12mo. 1750. The most difficult of all the methods of composing, is that in detached thoughts and sentences, Rochefoucault has made the world delicate, we cannot after reading his work, bear with any thing in that stile that is not striking: This author is far from being excellent; but I will translate a passage or two from him, to give you an idea of his manner.

“All the art, all the application, and all the care, which the women exert after the men, consists in nothing more than showing themselves different from what they really are.”——“Among women, opportunity is every thing, and those men who know how to introduce, or give birth to it always succeed in their designs against them.”——“The show of modesty, and the appearance of virtue are employed by some women to excite the fire of Love. Wo then betide the men who fall into their snares. We distinguish easily between a coquet, and a woman of pleasure: The vices which they aim not to conceal furnish us with arms against themselves: but they who borrow

the mask of wisdom to entangle us in their chains know how to render them eternal."—"Most women prefer the pleasure of being diverted to that of being beloved."—"Much greater virtues are necessary to preserve, than to acquire friends."—"Most men employ half their lives in seeking the means of losing the other half."—"A great politician, is a man who possesses an infinity of virtues mixed with an infinity of great vices."—"We are for ever reproaching the women with those defects which, on the contrary, we ought to think amiable. If they were to correct an infinity of small vices, with which the men are continually at war, nothing would be more insipid than the company of women."

GRAFFIGNY.

Madame. Chiefly known for her *Lettres d'une Péruvienne*, 12mo. 1747, and 1749. and 2 vols. 12mo. 1751, with an Introduction. And *Cénie* a Comedy.

GRESSET.

One of the most lively and agreeable poets at present in France: His *Ver-vert* is lively and elegant, and the best of his pieces. They are collected in an edition under the title of *Oeuvres diverses*, 12mo. 1748. His letter to the duke de Choiseul on the publication of the negotiation for peace in 1762, contains a passage worth quoting. "In publishing the papers of that negotiation, Sir, you leave to all the world, the liberty of being politicians for the time; or at least of their thinking themselves such; for myself, who 'till now, was never a meddler with the good nor the bad, suffer me to use this general permission. It appears to me, Sir, that the forgetfulness of one word, was very essential to the ill success of the conferences,

all

all would have been conciliated if the English had reflected one moment on the name of FONTENOI."

—This stroke is ridicule itself, it is a special piece of absurdity, to talk of recalling to mind a victory gained some twenty years ago, and afterwards succeeded by twenty defeats, as a consolation to the minister of an unsuccessful people: it ought only to be understood as a reproach on his ministry's not producing another Fontenoi, instead of the trifling sense in which M. Gresset means it. A sensible people who have not the liberty of speaking, should in bad times be silent—vanity is allowed them in good ones; the late war with them should have been the period of taciturnity itself; it was a fruitless attempt to reweave the laurels of former heroes for their unworthy successors, it is introducing comparisons which tend not to their advantage.

GRAFFENREID.

A sensible, practical, and ingenious author on Rural Oeconomicks. He is best known by his pieces in the Berne Memoirs.

1. Enumeration de quelques arbres et plantes étrangères, qui plantées depuis plusieurs années en pleine terre à Worb, ont soutenu la rigueur du climat, sans être couvertes, 1764. vol. 1st.
2. Description du Robinia, arbre de Sibérie, 1763. vol. 2d.
3. Essai sur les avantages et les inconvéniens des communes, du parcours, et du pâturage, 1763.

G U E R.

1. Cesar aveugle et voyageur, 12mo. 1740.
2. Mœurs et usages des Turcs. 4to. 2 vols. 1746.

3. Histoire de l'électricité, 12mo. 3 vols. 1752.

GUIGNES.

One of the most learned men in the oriental languages in Europe, he is well known by his

1. Mémoire historique sur l'origine des Huns, et des Turcs, 12mo. 1748.
2. Histoire des Huns, 4to. 1758.
3. Mémoire pour prouver que les Chinois font une colonie Egyptienne, 12mo.

GUYON.

His best works are,

1. Histoire des Empires et des Républiques, 12mo. 12 vols. 1738.
2. Histoire des Amazones, 12mo. 2 vols. 1741.
3. Histoire des Indes Orientales, anciennes et modernes, 12mo. 3 vols. 1744.
4. Essai critique sur l'établissement, et la translation de l'empire d'Occident, 4to. 1753.

HAMEL.

This celebrated gentleman ought justly to be considered as one of the most useful men France ever produced. He directs his enquiries in a path which has led him to truths of equal importance to mankind in general, and the french nation in particular. There are very few, among the immense number of authors whose works overspread the face of the globe, that in real utility are to be compared to M. du Hamel. He has produced no piece that is not of great importance.

1. Traité de la fabrique des manœuvres pour les Vaisseaux, ou l'art de la corderie perfectionné, 4to. 1747.
2. Traité de la culture des Terres, traduit en partie de l'Anglois, 12mo. 4 vols. 1750, and 6 vols. 1761.

3. Ele-

3. Elemens d'architecture navale, 4to. 1752.
4. Traité de la conservation des grains, 12mo. 1753.
5. Expériences et Réflexions sur la culture des terres, 12mo. 1753.
6. Expériences de la nouvelle Culture des Terres faites pendant l'année 1753. 12mo. 1754.
7. Traité des Arbres, 4to. 2 vols. 1755.
8. La Physique des Arbres, 4to. 2 vols. 1758.
9. Elemens d'agriculture, 12mo. 2 vols. 1762.
10. De l'exploitation des Bois, on y moyens d'en tirer un parti avantageux, et d'en faire une juste estimation; avec la description des arts qui se pratiquent dans les forets, 4to. 2 vols. 1764.
11. Avis pour le transport par mer des Arbres.
12. Moyens de conserver la Santé aux équipages des Vaisseaux.
13. Mémoires sur la Garance.

All these works are highly valuable: but not equally so; the treatise on the preservation of grain contains a description of new invented granaries of a most admirable construction for keeping corn any number of years, without the least damage. There could not be a more useful discovery for any country, for by means of them, large farmers who are rich enough to speculate on corn, may in very cheap years save the product of their farms 'till better ones arrive—and those countries whose wretched politicks induce them to erect *publick* grainaries, may use these, which are not an hundredth part of the expence of common ones, and fifty times as efficacious. His treatises on woods are extremely valuable, and composed on that only just foundation of knowledge, experience and philosophical observation. The experiments

in Agriculture, which he made himself, are judicious, but lye nearly open to the same objections as those of M. de Chateauvieux. His barrel drill is simple and extremely ingenious. The works concerning the Marine, are much esteemed.

HALLER.

1. Liste des arbres et arbrustes sauvages de la Suisse. Berne Memoires, 1763, vol. 2d.

HARPE.

Well known for his very sensible piece, entitled, *Le Cultivateur enrichi par les Pres Artificiels*. Berne Memoires, 1763, vol. 2d.

HERRENSCHVAND.

His best work is the essay *Des divers obstacles de notre agriculture et industrie, particulièrement des inconveniens des communes*. Berne Memoires, 1763, vol. 4th.

HAUTCHAMPS.

His *Histoire du système des Finances sous la Minorité de Louis XV.* 12mo. 3 vols. 1739, is a judicious work, abounding with many sensible observations.

HECQUET.

1. Catalogue des Estampes gravées d'après Rubens; ensemble un secret pour blanchir les Estampes, 12mo. 1745.
2. Catalogue de l'Oeuvre de F. Poilly, graveur du Roi; et des estampes gravées d'après Wauvermans; avec un secret pour décoller les desseins à l'encre de la Chine, 12mo. 1752.

H E L V E T I U S.

His famous work de l'Esprit 4to. 1758, and 12mo. 2 vols. 1759, has carried his name over all Europe. It is philosophical—but in many instances borders on paradox.

H E L L E.

1. Le catalogue des tableaux et estampes de M. Gersaint, qui est à la suite du catalogue de ses livres.
2. Catalogue raisonnée de toutes les pièces qui forment l'oeuvre de Rembrandt, par Gersaint, et mis au jour avec des augmentations et la vie de Rembrandt, 12mo. 1751.
3. Catalogue raisonné d'un cabinet de diverses curiosités (de M. Cotrin) 12mo. 1752.

H E N A U L T.

Known all over Europe, by his Abridgment—a work of extraordinary merit.

1. A Discourse which gained the french academy's prize in 1707.
2. Abrégé chronologique de l'histoire de France, 4to. 1746, and 2 vols. 8vo.
3. Nouveau Théâtre François, ou François II. Roi de France, 8vo. 1747.
4. Reveil d'Epimenide, comedy in a collection printed at Berlin.

H E R B E R T.

His work entituled Essai sur la Police générale des Grains, sur leur prix et sur les effets de l'agriculture, 8vo. 1753, and 12mo. 1754, is a valuable piece.

HUM-

H U M B E R T.

Among several other works, the following are worthy of attention.

1. Traité des Sieges, 8vo. 1747.
2. Nouveau Traité du Nivellement, 8vo. 1750.
3. Abrégé historique de l'origine et du progrès de la gravure, 8vo.
4. L'Art du Génie pour instruction des gens de Guerre, 8vo. 3 vols. 1755, &c.

J E A N N E R E T.

His Mémoire sur la Marne in the Bern Memoirs, 1763, vol. 2d. is a valuable piece.

J O N C O U R T.

Has translated a vast number of books from the English language. He is best known by his Histoire Universelle, in 14 vols. 4to.

J O U R D A N.

Among many other works of his, the Histoire de Pyrrhus Roi d'Epire, 12mo. 7 vols. 1749, and his Histoire d'Aristomene général des Messeniens, 12mo. 1749, are well known, and have merit.

J U L I E N.

Madame. Is well known for her Le Quadricide, ou Paralogisme prouvé géométriquement dans la quadrature de M. de Caufans, 4to. 1755.

J U V E N E L.

His Essai sur l'histoire des Belles Lettres, des Sciences et des Arts, 8vo. 4 vols. 1749, is a useful, and agreeable work.

L A C O M B E.

He has published a great many works, some of which have been well received the following are his best.

1. Dictionnaire portatif des Beaux Arts, 8vo. 1753.
2. Le Salon, 12mo, 1753.
3. Le Spectacle des Beaux Arts, 12mo. 1757.
4. Revolutions de l'Empire de Russie, 12mo. 1760.
5. Histoire de Christine Reine de Suède, 12mo. 1762. This is his best work, and has merit; but the English translation of it, published at London 1766, surpasses the original. It is the performance of a Lady whose elegant taste in the Belles Lettres deserves greater praise than is in the power of these sheets to confer.

L A M B E R T.

Among many other works, the following have no inconsiderable merit.

1. Lettre d'un Seigneur Hollandois à un de ses amis à la Haye, sur la dernière guerre, 12mo. 3 vols. 1744.
2. Essai sur l'empire de la Mer, 12mo.
3. Recueil d'observations curieuses sur les mœurs, les coutumes, les arts, et les sciences de différens peuples d'Asie, de l'Afrique, et de l'Amerique, 12mo. 4 vols. 1749.
4. Histoire générale de tous les peuples, 12mo. 15 vols. 1750.
5. Histoire Littéraire du Regne de Louis XIV. 4to. 3 vols. 1751.
6. Histoire de Henri II. Roi de France, 12mo. 2 vols. 1755.

LARGE.

L A R G E.

His *Memoires sur l'Agriculture en général, et en particulier*, 12mo. 1762. is a work of merit: and contains several observations of importance; but recommends some practices which are not feasible; for instance in the following passage, which I extract as the work was never translated. He inveighs very much against the practice of turning cattle at once into a large tract of grass, and goes on—"I would therefore arrange the lands in such a manner, that each ox should have an acre to himself, of which he would eat all the herbage, and none be wasted: In this manner, I would divide, with stakes only, or with herdles sunk enough to stand, 200 acres of pasture, for instance, into 200 regular pieces of an acre each, which I would destine for the nourishment of the same number of oxen.

In this method the animals will not spoil the herbage, which they feed successively, but it will shoot again without being trampled upon:—I construct two hundred moveable folds fixed on timbers, each with four small wheels, the whole three toises long, and two broad; the sides armed with many stakes let into the beams of the folds, of a greater length than the posts. These stakes secure the fold from all the efforts of the oxen on either side. I assign the care of fifty folds, and their beasts, to a domestic, four being sufficient for the whole.—After this preparation, I buy in April 200 lean oxen, and shut one into each fold, I then proceed to measure out six toises of grass for him, which I am sure he will eat without having time to spoil. When he has nearly eaten all the surface of his first division, I give him a fresh one, and continue that method so that the beast has never occasion to move backward to find food, observing

observing to move the folds in parallel lines, lengthways of the acre.—An acre contains one hundred square perches of twenty two feet each. I may therefore move the folds about two hundred and twenty times in the whole length before I return. I suppose for the nourishment of an ox, I must make sixteen removals of nine foot each in front, and there will then remain but little herbage in the pasture; In this case, a whole acre lasts a month. This time will certainly suffice for the grass shooting again: In two and an half, the ox will be fat enough to sell, I may therefore from the beginning of May to the end of October fat two oxen upon the same acre of pasture, or upon the two hundred, four hundred oxen. A lean ox costs from £. 3: 5: 6, to £. 3: 10: 0 * at most, and sells fat, for at least £. 5: 5: † I will suppose however, that he fetches but £. 4: 7: 6, there yet remains 17 s. 6d. profit *per* ox, and £. 175, upon my first purchase of 200. In July I buy 200 fresh ones which yield me the same profit at Allsaints, I am therefore at the end of the summer £. 350 in profit. I deduct half this sum for the wages and board of servants, and the construction of the folds which I reckon at 5 s. 3 d. each, as the wood is on the spot; I therefore find the neat profit of the first year to be £. 175, for all expences of buying and selling, are surely discounted in valuing the fat oxen so low as £. 4: 7: 6.—”

I take this to be one of the most ridiculous pieces of husbandry that ever fell from the pen of a schemer. Workmanship must be very cheap in France to construct such machines for 5 s. 3d. each—land must be extravagantly good that will fat two oxen on one acre, such must be worth 20 s. an acre, but if called only 10 s. there will according

* From 75 to 80 Livres. † 120.

to this scheme, remain only £ 75 profit on 200 acres, which might be gained twenty other ways. But how are the beasts to have water? None will fat without—so ten thousand ponds, one for each nine foot division must be dug! What absurdity! Nothing in this would be surprizing in a nameless essay, but it is wrote by M. de Large, who tells us where he lives—gives chapter and verse—has been a husbandman these twenty years! There lies the wonder. In another place he tells us from his experience, that the fertility of earth encreases in proportion to the depth we dig. What wonderful fertility must there be at the center of the globe!

LEBEUF.

His dissertations, which are numerous, concerning the history of France, are valuable.

LENTOT.

Madame. 1. Trois nouveaux Contes de Fées,

12mo. 1735.

2. Histoire de Mademoiselle de Salens, 12mo.

2 vols. 1740.

LISLE.

One of the ablest and most noted geographers of France: No maps are more valuable than his. He wrote,

1. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de l'Astronomie, 4to. 2 vols.

2. Avertissement aux astronomes sur l'eclipse du Soleil du 25 Juillet 1748. 4to.

3. Explication de deux cartes qui représentent la même eclipse traduit de Lowitz, 4to. 1748.

4. Lettres sur les tables Astronomiques de M. Halley, 12mo. 1750.

5. Explication de la carte des nouvelles découvertes au Nord de la Mer du sud, 4to. 1752.

6. Avera

6. Avertissement aux astronomes sur le passage de Mercure au-devant du soleil, 4to. 1743.
7. Nouvelles Cartes des découvertes de l'Amiral de Font, 4to. 1753.
8. Recherche du lieu du Ciel, où la comète doit paroître, 1758.

LOISEAU.

Mademoiselle. Known by her *La Rose*; *Sapho*; and *Epitre à Eglé*.

LOUIS XV. King of FRANCE.

Cours des principaux fleuves et rivières de l'Europe.

The works of Kings and Ladies should be exempt from criticism.

L I S T O N.

Of Scotland. He is the author of a Letter entitled, *Observations sur les Progrès d'Agriculture et des Manufactures*. It contains an endeavour to prove why manufactures flourish so greatly in Britain, without being of prejudice to Agriculture. Qu. If the fact is true?

L E R E C H E.

Mémoire sur l'abus du fumier dans la culture des Vignes. This is a sensible judicious piece.

L U B E R T.

Mademoiselle. Among other works, she is well known by the following, which are her best pieces.

1. *La Tyrannie des Fées détruites, ou l'origine de la machine de Marli*, 12mo.
2. *Le Revenant*, 12mo.
3. *La Princesse Lionnette et le Prince Coquerio*, 12mo. 1743.

4. *La*

4. La Princeſſe Coque d'œuf et le Prince Bon-
bon, 12mo. 1745.
5. Blancheroſe, conte, 12mo. 1751.
6. Amadis des Gaules (réduits à) 4 vols. 12mo.
7. Les hauts faits d'Eſplandian (réduits à) 2 vols.
12mo.
8. Leonille, nouvelle, 12mo. 2 vols. 1755.

L U S S A N.

Mademoiſelle. Voluminous, for a female writer; but many of her pieces have no inconfiderable merit.

1. Hiſtoire de la Comteſſe de Gondés, 12mo.
2 vols. 1727 and 1752.
2. Anecdotes de la Cour de Philippe Auguſte,
12mo. 6 vols. 1733.
3. Les Veillées de Theſſalie, 12mo. 4 vols.
1741.
4. Mémoires ſecret et intrigues de la Cour de
France ſous Charles VII. 12mo. 1741.
5. Anecdotes de la Cour de François I. 12mo.
3 vols. 1748.
6. Marie d'Angleterre Reine Duchefſe, 12mo.
1749.
7. Annales galantes de la Cour d'Henri II.
12mo. 2 vols. 1749.
8. Mourat et Turquia, hiſtoire Africaine, 12mo.
1752.
9. Hiſtoire de la Vie et du Regne de Charles
VI. Roi de France, 12mo. 8 vols. 1753.
10. Hiſtoire du Regne de Louis XI. 12mo. 6 vols.
1755.
11. La Vie du brave Grillon, 12mo. 2 vols.

M A B L Y.

A moſt ſenſible and ingenious writer, who throws new light on every ſubject he treats of. His works are known all over Europe.

1. Paral-

1. Parallele des Romains et des François par rapport au gouvernement, 12mo. 2 vols. 1740.
2. Le Droit public de L'Europe, 12mo. 2 vols. 1748.
3. Observations sur les Romains, 12mo. 2 vols. 1751.
4. Observations sur les Grecs, 12mo. 1749.

The two last works are very masterly; I forbear making particular mention of the observations on the Romans, as it is translated; but as those on the Greeks are not, I shall extract a passage from them, which will convince you the work deserves to be read in all languages.—“ Alexander passes into Asia with 30,000 infantry and 5,000 horse. Darius is vanquished, Persia conquered by the arms of the Macedonians, and the project of Philip nevertheless unexecuted. It was to divert the Greeks, from the idea of the loss of their liberty, to remove the forces which could alone support their daringness, to accustom them to obey, in seizing an empire, in which their country should find itself inclosed, that this Prince had formed the project of carrying the war into Asia. It was, on the contrary, for the dream of conquest, in overturning every thing, and establishing nothing, that his son threw himself upon the Empire of Darius. An enterprize, wise in the hands of Philip, becomes rash by passing to those of Alexander. The first projected his expedition upon joining to his own forces two hundred and thirty thousand Greeks, which would have given him a certainty of conquering Darius, and of enjoying successes more durable than those of Agesilaus; for after being possessed of all the forces of the Greeks, he would have had nothing to fear from any revolt at home. The second commenced his conquests with a moderate army, and his imprudence is yet more

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condemn-

condemnable in not being ignorant that his power was suspected in Grece, and that the Persians might easily have gained allies to give his arms a formidable diversion. In effect, if Darius had been possessed of firmness enough to avoid being confounded at the temerity of Alexander, if he had followed the wise council of Mennon, to imitate the wise politics of his predecessors, in scattering plenty of money among the Greeks, and arming those troops for his defence which his enemy had omitted to take into his service, it would then have been very unlikely, that Alexander, who had entered Asia with as little precaution as Agesilaus, should have had better success: the one had been obliged to abandon his conquests, and to renounce the just hope of ruining an empire which had been heretofore so terrible to the Greeks, to return to the defence of Sparta; and the other would likewise have been forced to fly to the defence of his own kingdom.

“ Not satisfied with the monarchy of Cyrus, he penetrates into India: meditates the conquest of Africa, designs to add Spain and Gaul to his dominion, traverse the Alps, and re-enter Macedonia, through Italy conquered; this was removing prodigiously the views of Philip; and substituting nothing reasonable in their room. What are we to think of conquests, whose only object was to ravage the earth? What name ought we to give a conqueror, who looks for ever forwards, but never turns his eyes behind him, marching with the blind impetuosity of a torrent, rushing in one moment, disappearing the next, and leaving nothing but ruin behind him? What had Alexander to hope? What did he in favour of Macedonia? Did he know that grandeur ought not to be fleeting; that conquests so rapid, so extensive, and so disproportioned to the Macedonian forces, could
not

not be preserved? If he was ignorant of truths so common, if he could not distinguish the resources and aim of his father's politicks, this hero must have an understanding not much enlightened: On the contrary, if nothing escaped his penetration, but nevertheless did not moderate his desires, he was a fury deserving the hatred of all mankind.

"Darius having offered Alexander six thousand talents, and the half of his empire, Parmenio thought it unwise to reject such a proposal, *I would except it*, said he, *if I was Alexander; and I also*, replied Alexander, *if I was Parmenio*. This answer so little sensible has been admired, because it displayed the whole character of Alexander, and proved that his courage, and his ambition were without bounds. Philip would have thought with Parmenio, and he would have made a peace with Darius. Master of one half of Asia, he would have laboured for the glory and benefit of the Macedonians. He would have made himself feared and respected by the Greeks, by enveloping them with his power. In one word he would have founded a great empire, and in establishing a constant order, in the different provinces of his dominion, he would have left his successors in a state of preserving and extending his conquests.

"If we draw the two princes, of whom I speak, into this point of view, we shall remark a strange disproportion between them. In Philip, I see a politician superior to all events, and formed to govern mankind. Fortune could not to him oppose obstacles which he had not foreseen, and which he did not surmount by his wisdom, his patience, his courage, or his activity; I discover a vast genius in all the enterprizes he projected which yield to each other so mutual an assistance. Whatever he executes is always a consequence of something already done; and a preparation for

something that ought naturally to follow. In Alexander I see an extraordinary warrior, whose rash and impatient courage, if I may use the expression, cuts at once the gordian knot which Philip would have untied. The excess of all his qualities, surpasses reason, and makes him appear great, because he occasions others to consider more the weakness of their own characters; instead of not being surprized at so rare a phenomenon, we give him nothing but admiration."

5. Principes des Negociations, pour servir d'introduction au droit public de l'Europe, 12mo.

6. Lettres sur l'Opera.

M A R C E T.

Essai sur la manière de conserver les Bleds. Bern Memoirs, 1763, vol. 3d.

M A C Q U E R.

His works are truly experimental: the greatest praise that can be given them.

1. Elémens de Chymie théorique, 12mo. 1749.

2. Elémens de Chymie pratique, 12mo. 2 vols. 1751.

3. Plan d'un cours de Chymie.

M A I R A N.

A philosophical author, whose works not only do credit to himself, but are of importance in the general estimation of his country's literary merit. Most of his pieces are well known.

1. Dissertation sur la cause de la lumière des Phosphores et des Noctiluques, 12mo. 1717.

2. Dissertation sur la glace, 12mo. 1719. and 1749.

3. Differ-

3. Dissertation sur les variations du Barometre, 12mo. 1715.
4. Lettre à M. l'abbé Bignon sur la nature des Vaisseaux, 4to. 1728.
5. Traité physique et historique de l'Aurore boreale, 4to. 1733. and 1754.
6. Lettre à M. Cramer sur son Mémoire sur le mouvement diurne de la terre.
7. Dissertation sur les forces motrices des corps, 12mo. 1741.
8. Lettre à Madame du Chatelet sur la question des forces vives, 12mo. 1741.
9. Eloges des Académiciens de l'académie des sciences, morts en 1741, 1743, and 1747. 12mo.
10. Lettre à M. Cramer sur le Son, 12mo.
11. Lettres au P. Parrenin, 4to.

M A L L E T.

Very well known for his *Histoire de Danemarck*, 4to. a most useful work, but not yet finished. His *Monumens de la Mythologie*, et surtout de la *Poesie des Celtes*, 4to. 1756. is a work of equal merit.

M A R I E T T E.

His works are many of them judicious, most of them very useful, and well known.

1. Lettre à M. le Comte de Caylus, 1730.
2. Description abrégée de l'Eglise de S. Pierre de Rome, 12mo. 1738.
3. La Vie de Leonard de Vinci, avec le recueil de têtes de caractère et de charges, 4to. 1730.
4. Description sommaire des desseins et pierres gravées du cabinet de M. Crozat, 8vo. 1741.

5. Description des Tableaux du Cabinet de M. Boyer d'Eguilles, d'Aix en Provence, folio. 2 vols. 1745.
6. La dernière édition du cours d'Architecture qui comprend les ordres de Vignoles avec le commentaire de d'Aviler, 4to. 1750.
7. Traité historique des Pierres gravées avec l'histoire des Graveurs, et une Bibliothèque historique et critique des Ouvrages sur les Pierres Gravées, folio, 2 vols. 1750.
8. Description sommaire des statues, figures, bustes, vases et autres morceaux de Sculpture, provenants du Cabinet de M. Crozat, 8vo. 1750.
9. Description de Paris par Germain Brice, 12mo. the three first vols. 1752.
10. Abrégée des Vies des Peintres.

M A R I G N Y.

1. Histoire du douzième siècle, 12mo, 5 vols.
2. Histoire des Révolutions de l'empire des Arabes sous le gouvernement des Califes, 12mo. 4 vols. 1750.

M A R I V A U X.

In the easy entertaining and agreeable class of composition, which depends on a lively imagination, this writer is one of the foremost in France. His name has been long known over all Europe.

1. Les Effets surprenans de la sympathie, 12mo. 2 vols. 1713.
2. L'Homere travesti, ou l'Iliade en vers burlesques, 12mo. 2 vols. 1716.
3. Le Spectateur François, 12mo. 2 vols. 1722 and 1752.
4. Le Philosophe indigent, ouvrage periodique, 12mo. 2 vols. 1727.
5. La Vie de Marianne, 12mo. 4 vols. 1734.

6. Le

6. *Le Payfan parvenu*, 12mo. 1735.

7. *Pharfamon ou les nouvelles folies romanesques*,
12mo. 2 vols. 1737.

His Theatrical pieces are contained in 6 vols.
12mo.

MARMONTÉL.

A writer whose rising reputation bids fair for ranking him among the first authors of France, in the entertaining stile—in the lighter regions of poetry, tales, and the criticism of modern languages.

1. *L'Observateur Littéraire*, 12mo. 1746.

2. Preface to the *Henriade* of M. Voltaire.

3. *La boucle de cheveux enlevée*, poëme traduit de Pope, 12mo. 1746.

4. *L'Etablissement de l'école Royale militaire*, poëme, 8vo. 1751.

5. *Vers sur la Maladie, et la convalescence de Monseigneur le Dauphin*, 4to. 1752.

6. Many articles in the *Encyclopædia*, and numerous ones in the *Mercure*, which he for some time directed.

7. *Poétique Française*, 8vo. 3 vols. 1763. This work is a very valuable critical treatise, on every species of poetry; in many instances the rules and limits are in the strictness of the French taste, but it nevertheless contains a great variety of very lively and judicious remarks, and is extremely well wrote.

8. *Contes Moraux*, 12mo. 4 vols.

9. *Les Charmes de L'Etude*, annexed to the *Contes Moraux*. The following extract will give you an idea of M. Marmontel's poetry, and at the same time contains a lively sentiment (whether just or not, judge;) on a well known point of criticism.

J'entends Boileau qui s'écrie : O blasphème !
 Louer Le Tasse ! . . . Oui, Le Tasse lui-même,
 Laissons Boileau tâcher d'être amusant,
 Et pour raison donner un mot plaisant.
 Quoi de plus doux, de plus vif, de plus male
 Que ce Poème, objet de ses mépris ?
 Je sçai, Virgile, admirer tes écrits ;
 Troye et Carthage, et la rive infernale,
 Les pleurs d'Evandre, et la mort d'Euriale
 Sont des Tableaux dont je sens tout le prix :
 Didon sur-tout n'eut jamais de rivale.
 Mais que le Tasse a bien mieux exprimé
 Cet héroïsme ébauché par Homere !
 Que d'un pinceau plus fier, plus animé,
 Il nous a peint la Piété sincere,
 La grandeur simple, et la sagesse austere,
 Et la valeur qui connoît le danger,
 Et la fureur qui s'aveugle elle-même
 Et la jeunesse ardente à se plonger
 Dans les plaisirs qu'elle craint et qu'elle aime,
 Et la vertu qui la vient degager !
 Mais toi, Virgile, aux plus beaux jours du
 monde
 Dans le berceau des plus grands des humains,
 Dans cette Rome en héros si féconde,
 Qui choisis-tu pour Pere des Romains ?
 Ce n'est pas tout que d'aller fonder Rome :
 Ce grand dessein demandoit un grand homme,
 Compare Enée à ce héros brillant,
 A ce Renaud, si tendre et si vaillant.
 Un foible amour est douxereux et fade ;
 Mais dans sa force il est beau généreux,
 Touchant sur-tout quand il est malheureux :
 Si sa colere a fait une Iliade,
 L'Amour est-il moins fier, moins dangereux.

10. Apologie du Théâtre, ou Analyse de la Let-
 tre de M. Rousseau Citoyen de Geneve à
 M. D'Alembert, au sujet des Spectacles.

11. An-

11. Annette et Lubin, Pastorale mise en vers, 8vo. 1762.
12. Lucan's Pharsalia, translated into French, 1765.
13. Theatrical Pieces.

M A S C R I E R.

1. He translated M. de Thou's history into French, in conjunction with Messrs. Adam and Desfontaines, 4to. 16 vols. 1733.
2. Description de l'Egypt dressé sur les Mémoires de M. Maillet, 4to. 1735, and 12mo. 2 vols.
3. La Préface des Mémoires du marquis de Feuquières, 4to.
4. Histoire général des Cérémonies de tous les Peuples, folio, 7 vols. 1741, in conjunction with the Abbé Banier.
5. Idée du Gouvernement ancien et moderne de l'Egypt, 12mo. 1743.
6. La Ressource et le Caprice en vers.
7. Editor of the Histoire de Louis XIV. par Pellisson, 12mo. 1759.
8. Oeuvres de Martial, 1754.
9. Les Commentaires de Cesar, traduction, 12mo. 1755.

M A S S U E T.

His Physical works are numerous and some of them in esteem; of his other productions the following are the best.

1. Histoire des Rois de Pologne et des Révolutions arrivées dans ce Royaume depuis le commencement de la Monarchie jusqu'à présent, 8vo. 3 vols. 1733. and 5 vols. 1734.
2. Histoire de la guerre présente, contenant tout ce qui s'est passé de plus important en Italie, &c.

- &c. avec les principaux plans des Sièges et des Batailles, 8vo. 1735.
3. Histoire de la dernière Guerre pour servir de Suite à l'histoire de la Guerre présente avec la vie du Prince Eugene, 1736. Both these works in 5 vols. 1737.
 4. Histoire de l'Empereur Charles VI. &c. 12mo. 2 vols. 1740.
 5. Annales d'Espagne et de Portugal, 4to. 4 vols. et 8vo. 8 vols.
 6. Elémens de la Philosophie moderne, 12mo. 2 vols. 1752.

MAUPERTUIS.

One of the most celebrated Mathematicians of France, the merit of whose works has rendered them known all over Europe.

1. La Figure de la Terre déterminée par les observations de Messrs. de Maupertuis, Clairaut, Camus, le Monnier et Outhier, 8vo. 1738.
2. La Mesure d'un degré du Méridien en France déterminée par celle de M. Picard et par les observations de Messrs. Clairaut, Camus, et le Monnier, 8vo. 1740.
3. Discours sur la Parallaxe de la Lune, 8vo. 1741.
4. Discours sur la figure des Astres, 8vo. 1742.
5. Elémens de la Géographie, 8vo. 1742.
6. Lettre sur la comète, 12mo. 1742.
7. Astronomie nautique, ou élémens d'Astronomie, 8vo. 1745.
8. Dissertation Physique à l'occasion du Negre blanc, 8vo. 1744.
9. Venus Physique, 12mo. 1745.
10. Essai de Cosmologie, 8vo.
11. Réflexions sur l'origine des Langues et la signification des mots, 12mo.

12. Essais

12. Essais de Philosophie Morale, 12mo. 1749.
and 8vo.
13. Lettre sur le Progrès des Sciences, 12mo.
1752.
14. Lettres, 12mo. 1753.
15. Vertus Physiques, 12mo.
16. Discours Académiques, 8vo.

M A Z A R E L L I.

Mademoiselle. Best known by her *Camédris*,
Conte, 12mo. 1765.

M A S S A C.

His Oeconomical writings have no inconsiderable merit.

1. Discours et Mémoires relatifs à l'agriculture,
12mo. 1763.
2. Lettre à M. Duplex De Bacquencourt.

M A U V I L L O N.

1. Histoire du Prince Eugene, 12mo. 5 vols.
1740, and 1745.
2. Histoire de la dernière guerre de Bohême,
12mo. 2 vols. 1745.
3. Remarques sur les Germanismes, 12mo.
2 vols. 1751, and 1755.
4. Histoire de Frédéric Guillaume I. Roi de
Prusse, 8vo. 2 vols.
5. Histoire de Czar Peter I.

M E H E G A N.

A sensible and ingenious author, whose works abound with judicious remarks, and are composed in an agreeable and lively stile.

1. Discours sur l'adoption des arts prononcé à
Copenhague, 4to. 1751.

2. L'Épître

2. L'Épître dédicatoire et le Programme sont de M. de la B.
3. L'Origine des Guebres, ou la Religion naturelle mise en action, 1751.
4. Considérations sur les Révolutions des Arts, 12mo. 1755. This is an agreeable little work, very well wrote, the following character of Cæsar, I have translated from it as a specimen; I think it is one of the best passages in our author's writings.—“ It is rare that a great soul is united with an extreme *finesse* of mind. The sphere in which she moves, is too vast for the power of distinguishing the light shadowing of objects. Besides that noble confidence which gives birth to the former quality, makes them neglect or disdain the latter. Alexander and Henry IV. subdued all, rather by the force of their courage, and the abundance of their resources, than by the *finesse* of their views.

“ It is rare that political abilities are proper for designs extremely elevated. The habit of dwelling on little details, weakens the mind and prevents it from reaching the spirit of affairs of a certain extent. Besides, the timidity which gives birth to this quality, deprives the mind of that daring boldness which is necessary for the effecting great strokes. Tiberius, and Lewis XI. were the most able politicians of their times, and neither of these princes performed any thing great.

“ It is rare that extreme prudence is joined to extreme celerity. Great prudence would foresee every thing, and for that purpose scrupulously examines every aspect an affair can wear, but demanding too much time frequently loses the moment of action. Fabius saved Rome, because Rome found itself in one of those singular cases where it could only be saved by slowness. Some years sooner or later, Fabius would have lost it. Philip the II.

was yet more prudent; and his tardiness made him neglect England, and lose France.

"Cæsar was the man of the whole world, in whom all these different qualities were most united. His vast genius embraced all sorts of affairs; his sublime views attained the most elevated. His penetration discovered every connection; his finesse for ever distinguished appearance from reality: his imagination glanced at the means: his foresight calculated all resources: his discernment ever chose the best side; and his activity executed all with a celerity that was prodigious. A prodigal citizen: An adroit caballer: a supple candidate; a factious tribune; a dreaded senator; an adored consul; the most intrepid soldier in his army, and the greatest captain in the world: in the city, in the camp, he moved all; he animated all; he projected all; he attempted all; he executed all."

5. Lettre à M. * * * * sur l'Année Littéraire, et en particulier sur la feuille du 11 May, 1755, 12mo.
6. Pièces fugitives, extraites des œuvres de M. 1755. 12mo.
7. Histoire du Marquis de Terville, 12mo. 1756.
8. Histoire d'Euphranor, tirée des Lettres d'Aspasie, traduites du Grec, 12mo. 2 vols.

MIRABEAU.

Marquis de. A most celebrated writer on the importance of Agriculture, and rural Oeconomics: A true citizen of the world, who employs his pen under a government the most arbitrary, on subjects the most important to nations the most free.

1. Mémoire concernant l'utilité des Etats Provinciaux, 12mo. 1750.

2. Mé-

2. Mémoires sur les Etats Provinciaux, 12mo.
1750.
3. Examen des poésies sacrées de M. de la Franc, 12mo.
4. Réponse du Correspondant à son Banquier.
5. L'Ami des Hommes, 12mo. 8 vols. 1761.
6. Theorie de l'Impôt, 12mo. 1761.
7. Mémoire adressé à la Societé de Berne, 1760.
12mo.
8. Mémoire pour concourir au prix, 12mo.
1761.

MONTESQUIEU.

This author was most indubitably one of the greatest politicians the world ever knew. His immortal *L'Esprit des Loix*, merits prodigious praise; but I am a little suspicious that it will not in a future age, be esteemed in that *excessive* manner, in which it has been received in the present. There is no country in Europe where a work extraordinarily good, is so amazingly puffed off as in France. This disposition when it works on grounds of real merit, forces applause from all Europe, in a tone rather higher than the natural. Many very rational and strong objections have been made to the deductions of M. de Montesquieu, but the clamour and detestation which arose against the authors seem to have taken from the world all pretence of espying the least speck of a fault. One of his greatest eulogists has declared, that he is rather a poet than a philosopher——which sentiment will by and by become general, and will not end in an advance of his reputation. I would not be understood to have a light idea of the merit of the *L'Esprit des Loix*. I think it an admirable work, but I cannot think it at present rated only to its real merit. All Europe knows the language of the french, in regard to the *Henriade*——it was
adopted

adopted at first, but time has made no inconsiderable attack on the *general* reputation of that Poem. And the time will come, when it will never be seen but in the hands of a frenchman, and in his, not with any great admiration—However, it must be allowed there is a great deal of difference between the two performances in merit.

M O N T.

Best known by his,

1. Mémoires historiques sur la Louisiane, 12mo. 1753.
2. Histoire et commerce des colonies Angloises dans l'Amérique Septentrionale, 12mo. 1755.
3. Essai sur l'Etat du Commerce d'Angleterre, 12mo. 2 vols. 1755.

M O N T G O N.

1. Recueil de Lettres et Mémoires, 12mo. 1732.
2. Mémoires contenant les Négociations dont il a été chargé sous le ministère du Cardinal de Fleury, 12mo. 8 vols. 1748, and 1751.

M N I S Z E C H.

Le Comte de. A patriotic nobleman, who left his own country to gain in others a practical knowledge of Agriculture. His Lettre à la Société œconomique de Berne, offering a prize for the best Dissertation on the Spirit of Legislation relative to Agriculture, Population, &c. &c. is greatly praise worthy; his Mémoire sur la Culture des Pommes de Terre, et leurs usages: and his Essai sur les Tourbes, are practical and sensible: They are both in the Berne Mémoires.

MICHEL.

MICHELI.

His Lettre sur les Observations à faire des Variations dans l'Atmosphère, is a very judicious and sensible essay.

MORLIERE.

Chevalier de la. His Angola, histoire Indienne, 12mo. 2 vols. 1746, is in the taste of those of M. de Crebillon, but not equal, except in indecency.

MOUHY.

Chevalier de.

1. Le Répertoire, a periodical work, 12mo. 1735.
2. La Paysanne parvenue, 12mo. 4 vols. 1735.
3. Mémoires posthumes du comte de **** avant sa retraite, 8vo. 1735.
4. Le Démêlé Survenu entre le Payfan parvenu, et la Payfanne parvenue, 12mo. 1735.
5. Lamekis, ou les voyages extraordinaires d'un Egyptien dans la terre intérieure, 12mo. 2 vols. 1735.
6. Mémoires du marquis de Fieux, 12mo. 4 vols. 1735.
7. Paris, ou le Mentor à la mode, 8vo. 2 vols. 1735.
8. Le Mérite vengé, ou Conversations sur divers écrits modernes, 12mo. 1736.
9. La Mouche, ou les aventures de Bigand, 12mo. 4 vols. 1737.
10. Nouveaux motifs de conversion, 12mo. 1738.
11. Mémoires d'Anne Marie de Moras Comtesse de Courbon, 4 vols. 12mo. 1739.
12. Mille et une faveur, 12mo. 8 vols. 1748.
13. Vie de Chimene de Spinelli, 12mo. 2 vols. 1738.

14. L'Art

14. L'Art de la Toilette, 12mo.
15. Lettre d'un Genoïs à son Correspondant à Amsterdam, 12mo. 1747.
16. Mémoires d'un Fille de Qualité qui ne s'est pas retirée du Monde, 12mo. 4 vols.
17. Le Masque de Fer, 12mo. 2 vols. 1750.
18. Tablettes dramatiques, contenant l'Abrégé de l'histoire du Théâtre François, 8vo. 1752.
19. Mémoires de mademoiselle de * *.
20. Mémoires de madame de Villenemours, 12mo.
21. La Répertoire de tous les ouvrages restes au Théâtre François, 1753.
22. Les Delices du Sentiment, 12mo. 6 vols. 1753.
23. Lettres du Commandeur de * * * à mademoiselle de * * *, 12mo. 2 vols. 1753. Editör.
24. Mémoires du marquis de Benavidez, 12mo. 4 vols. 1754.
25. L'Amante Anonyme, 12mo. 1755.
26. Le Financier, 12mo. 1760.

N E E L.

Among other works not equal to them, he is known by the following.

1. Voyage de Paris à St. Cloud, par mer et par terre, 12mo. 1751.
2. Histoire du maréchal de Saxe, 12mo. 3 vols. 1752.
3. Histoire de Louis d'Orleans, duc d'Orleans mort en 1752.

N I V E R N O I S.

M. le duc de. His Réflexions sur le Génie d'Horace, de Despréaux et de Rousseau, in the 1st
Z volume

volume of the Montauban Memoirs, is a sensible essay.

NOLIN.

Best known by his *Essai sur l'Agriculture moderne*, 12mo. 1755.

NOLLET.

An Experimental Philosopher, whose works are well known all over Europe. His pieces on Electricity, are reckoned the best that ever were published.

1. *Idée d'un cours de Physique expérimentale*, 12mo. 1738.
2. *Leçons de Physique expérimentale*, 12mo. 5 vols. 1748.
3. *Essai sur l'Electricité des corps*, 12mo. 1747.
4. *Recherches sur les causes particulieres des Phénomènes électriques*, 12mo. 1749.
5. *Lettre sur l'Electricité*, 12mo. 1753.
6. *Oratio habita cum primum Physicæ Experimentalis Cursum Professor a Rege institutus auspicaretur in Rege Navarra*, 1753.
7. *Discours sur les dispositions et les qualités qu'il faut avoir pour faire des Progrès dans l'Etude de la Physique expérimentale pour l'ouverture de la nouvelle école*, 4to. 1753.

NOEL.

His memoir upon a new drill plough of his invention, read to the Society of Chaalons sur-Marne, deserves attention for one excellency; viz. it costs but six livres more than a common plough.

OLIVET.

O L I V È T.

A very voluminous writer: but his works are good as well as numerous. The following are the most noted pieces of his own composing.

1. Continuation de l'Histoire de l'Académie par Pellisson, 12mo. 1730.
2. Traité de la Prosodie Française, 12mo. 1736.

P A R F A I C T.

1. Histoire du Théâtre François depuis son origine jusqu'à présent, 12mo. 15 vols. 1734.
2. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire des Spectacles de la Foire, 12mo. 2 vols. 1743.
3. Histoire de l'ancien Théâtre Italien, 12mo. 1753.
4. Dictionnaire des Théâtres de Paris, 12mo. 6 vols. 1756.

P A G E R I E.

Best known for his Mémoire sur les Plantations, et semis de bois dans les plaines de la haute Champagne, which is a patriotic and judicious piece.

P A T T E.

A well known Architect, the works for which he is ranked here are,

1. La nouvelle édition des Oeuvres d'Architecture de M. Boffrand, folio, 1753.
2. Discours sur l'Architecture, 8vo. 1754.
3. Etudes d'Architecture de France et d'Italie, 4to. 1755.
4. Monumens érigés en France à la gloire de Louis XV. folio. 1764.

P E C Q U E T.

Besides some translations from the Italian poets
—he has wrote,

1. Pensées sur l'homme, 8vo. 1738.
2. Discours sur l'emploi du loisir, 8vo. 1739.
3. Parallele du cœur, de l'esprit, et du bon sens,
8vo. 1740.
4. Loix Forestieres de France, 4to. 2 vols.
1753.

P E R A U.

Besides a vast number of editions of others
works, which scarcely entitle him to a place in this
catalogue, he is the author of Les Vies des Hom-
mes Illustres de la France, from the 13th to the
20th volume.

P E S S E L I E R.

A lively and agreeable author, whose pieces,
though of the lighter kind, have merit.

1. Le Glaneur François, 12mo. 3 vols. 1736.
2. Etrennes d'un jeune Muse, 1739.
3. Oeuvres de Théâtre, 8vo. 1740.
4. Lettre sur les quatre modèles exposés au Sa-
lon, pour le Mausolée du Cardinal de
Fleury, 4to.
5. Le Songe de Cydalise.
6. Fables Nouvelles, 8vo. 1748.
7. Epitre à un jeune auteur sur l'abus des Ta-
lens de l'Esprit, 12mo. 1750.
8. Eclogue sur la Naissance de M. le duc de
Bourgogne, 4to. 1751.
9. Les Nouveaux dialogues des Morts, 12mo.
2 vols. 1753.

10. L'Esprit

10. L'Esprit de Montagne, 12mo. 2 vols. 1753.

P E R D O N E T.

Best known by his Mémoire sur l'Abus du Fumier dans la culture des Vignes, in the Berne Memoirs, 1763, vol. 4th.

P A T U L L O.

Known all over Europe by his admirable work, entituled, Essai sur l'Amelioration des Terres.

P E Z E N A S.

His mathematical works are much esteemed in France—the principal are the following.

1. Elémens du Pilotage, 12mo. 1734.
2. Nouvelle méthode pour le Jeaugeage des segmens des tonneaux, 4to. 1742.
3. Traité des Fluxions de MacLaurin, 4to. 2 vols. 1749.
4. Observations Meteorologiques.
5. La Præctique du Pilotage, 8vo. 1749.
6. La Théorie et la Præctique du geaugeage des tonneaux, des navires et de leurs segmens, 8vo. 1749.
7. Mémoires de Mathématique et de Physique rédigés à l'Observatoire de Marseille, 4to.

P H I L I P P E.

Has given an edition of many of the classics—his own works have merit; the best are,

1. Mémoires sur l'Afrique et sur l'Amérique, 4to. 1752.
2. Analyse chronologique de l'histoire universelle, 8vo. 1752.
3. Tablettes Geographiques pour l'intelligence des historiens et des poetes latins, 12mo. 2 vols. 1755.

P I O G E R.

Has written some pieces relative to Agriculture of middling merit. He is noted in France for the discovery of a new kind of Plough, described in his *Observation sur un vice essentiel des charrues*. *Mercure* Jan. 1760: but I have no conception the scheme can answer; his plan is to use wheels to his plough, three times as high as the common ones, by which additional height, he says, the same number of cattle will draw three shares, working in the ground, instead of one.

P I R O N.

Imagination, wit, liveliness, and elegance, are to be met with in his works; but he is strangely unequal.

1. *Nouvelles de l'autre monde*, poeme.
2. *La Louisiade*, poeme héroïque, 4to.
3. *Le Batiment de S. Sulpice*, ode.
4. *Le Semp de Mémoire*, poeme allegorique, 12mo. 1744.
5. *Chansons sur le retour du Roi*, 12mo.
6. *Lettre d'un Savoyard au sujet de la tragedie de Pyrrhus et de sa critique*, 8vo. 1726.
7. *Pieces de Theatre*, 12mo. 3 vols. The best is his comedy *La Metromanie*.

P L A C E.

1. *Essai sur le goût de la tragedie*, 1738.
2. *Les Erreurs de l'Amour*, 12mo. 3 vols. 1754.
3. *Theatrical Pieces*.
4. *Memoires de Cecile*, 12mo. 4 vols. 1756.
5. At present conducts the *Mercure de France*.

PLISSON,

P L I S S O N.

Mademoiselle.

1. Ode sur la vie champêtre.
2. Eclogue à Madame la Dauphine, 1751.
3. Réponse à une Epître qui lui a été adressée dans le Journal de Verdun de fevrier.
4. Ode sur la naissance du duc de Bourgogne.
5. Stances sur la naissance de M. le duc d'Aquitaine, 1753.
6. Ode sur les Pluyes de 1753, Août, 1754.

P L U C H E.

An ingenious author, who has gained a considerable reputation by rendering the depths of natural philosophy familiar to common understandings.

1. Histoire du Ciel, 12mo. 2 vols. 1739.
2. Le Spectacle de la Nature, 12mo. 8 vols. 1732.
3. Le Mécanique des Langues, 12mo. 1751.
4. The same in Latin.
5. Supplément à la Mécanique des Langues, 12mo. 1753.

P E L L U C H E.

Among many other works he is known for his Description de la Ville et des Environs d'Orleans, 8vo. 1736.

P O M I E R.

Traité sur la Culture des Muriers blancs, la maniere d'élever les vers à soie, et l'usage qu'on doit faire des cocons, 1762. This a sensible and ingenious work.

P O R T E.

This author is wonderfully unequal in his pieces —some are useful, and well executed, others trifling and useles. His poetry is wretched.

1. Pensées sur divers sujets de Morale, &c. 12mo. 1748.
2. Observations sur la littérature moderne et autres ouvrages, 12mo. 11 vols. 1753.
3. Les Spectacles de Paris, 12mo. 1751.
4. Pastorale héroïque sur le mariage de Soubise, 4to. 1741.
5. Epitre Philosophique sur la Fortune.
6. Epitre à la Reine d'Hongrie, 12mo. 1750.
7. Tableau de l'Empire Ottoman, 12mo.

P R E M O N T V A L.

A thinking writer, whose speculations suggest more than they express. Some of his works figure, even in the age at large :

1. Discours sur l'utilité des Mathématiques, 12mo. 1742.
2. De la Nature des quantités que les Mathématiques ont pour objet, 12mo. 1742.
3. Notions préliminaires à l'étude des Mathématiques, 12mo. 1743.
4. De la Nature du Nombre, 12mo. 1743.
5. L'Esprit de Fontenelle, 8vo. 1744.
6. Panagiana Panurgica, ou le faux Evangéliste, Critique du Livre des Mœurs, 8vo. 1750.
7. La Monogamie Ouvrage où l'on prouve la Conformité des Loix de la Nature, de Moyse, et de Jesus Christ sur ce sujet, 3vo. 3 vols. 1757.
8. Pensées sur la Liberté, 8vo. 1754.
9. Du Hazard sous l'empire de la Providence, 8vo. 1754.

10. Le

10. Le Diogene de d'Alembert, Pensées libres sur l'homme, 8vo. 1754.
11. Cause bizarre, ou piéces d'un procès Ecclésiastico-civil, 8vo. 1755.
12. Protestations et déclarations philosophiques sur les principaux objets des Connoissances humaines, 8vo. 13 vols.

P R E M O N T V A L.

Madame, wife of the preceding. Among other works, she is author of the following, besides a share in some of her husband's.

1. Le Mechaniste Philosophe; Mémoires concernant plusieurs particularités de la vie du Sr. Jean Pidgeon (her father) mathématicien, 8vo. 1750.

P R E V O S T.

More voluminous than authors generally are, who employ themselves on light entertaining subjects: Indeed folios are a little contradictory to a morning's amusement—and for dissipation in those idle hours which people turn over books to amuse: However, M. Prevost has a pretty numerous collection of slighter works.

1. Mémoires d'un homme de qualité, 12mo. 6 vols. 1729.
2. Histoire de Cleveland fils naturel de Cromwel, 12mo. 6 vols. 1732.
5. Histoire du Chevalier de Grioux et de Manon Lescaut, 12mo. 1733.
4. Le Pour et Contre, ouvrage periodique, 12mo. 20 vols.
5. La Traduction du premier volume de l'Histoire Universelle de M. de Thou, 4to. 1733.
6. La Préface du Tome II. des singularités historiques et littéraires par D. Liron,

7. La

7. La Préface des trois nouveaux Contes de Fées
par madame D. 1735.
8. Tout pour l'Amour, ou le Monde bien perdu;
ou la mort d'Antoine et de Cléopâtre, tra-
gédie traduite de l'Anglois, 12mo. 1735.
9. Le Doyen de Killerine, 12mo. 1736.
10. Histoire de Marguerite d'Anjou, Reine
d'Angleterre, 12mo. 2 vols. 1740.
11. Histoire d'un Grecque moderne, 12mo. 2 vols.
1741.
12. Campagnes Philosophiques, ou Mémoires de
Montcal, 12mo. 2 vols. 1741.
13. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de Malthe,
ou l'histoire de la Jeunesse du Commandeur
de * * * 12mo. 2 vols. 1742.
14. Histoire de Guillaume le Conquérant Roi
d'Angleterre, 12mo. 2 vols. 1742.
15. Traduction des Voyages de Robert Lade, 12mo.
2 vols. 1744.
16. Lettres de Cicéron à Brutus, et de Brutus à
Cicéron, 1744.
17. Histoire de Cicéron, traduite de l'Anglois,
12mo. 5 vols. 1744.
18. Mémoires d'un honnête homme, 1745.
19. Histoire générale des Voyages, traduite de
l'Anglois, 4to. 12 vols. et 12mo. 48 vols.
20. Lettres de Cicéron qu'on nomme familières
traduites en François, avec des notes, 12mo.
5 vols. 1747.
21. Lettres Angloises, ou histoire de Carice Har-
love, 12mo. 12 vols. 1751.
22. Nouvelles lettres Angloises, ou histoire du Che-
valier Grandison, 12mo. 10 vols. 1755.
23. Directed the Journal Etrangere from Jan.
1755, to September of the same year.

PUISIEUX,

P U I S I E U X.

Madame. Her husband is likewise an author, but eclipsed by the reputation of his wife. Her pieces are lively and entertaining.

1. Conseils d'une Dame à une Amie, 12mo. 1749.
2. Les Caractères, 8vo. 2 vols. 1750.
3. Le Plaisir et la Volupté, Conte allegorique, 12mo. 1752.
4. L'Education du marquis D * * * ou Mémoires de la comtesse de Zurlac, 12mo. 2 vols. 1754.
5. Zamer et Almanzine, ou l'inutilité de l'Esprit et du Bon Sens, 12mo. 3 vols. 1755.

Q U E S N A Y.

One of the most noted Physicians in France; his works are very numerous, and in good esteem.

R A F F I N E S Q U E.

His Mémoire sur la Proportion necessaire entre les Prairies et les Terres labourées, is a most excellent piece, full of judicious remarks and very cogent observations on that point of Agriculture. Berne Memoirs 1763. vol. 4th.

R A M E A U.

The celebrated Musician, who in France is reckoned more than human—but not *so* adored in other countries where the Italian musick reigns; and with good reason. He is ranked here for his compositions, as an author.

1. Premier livre des Pièces de Clavecin, 4to. 1706.

2. Second

2. Second livre des Pièces de Clavecin, 4to. 1721.
3. Nouvelles Pièces de Clavecin, 1726.
4. Dissertation sur les différentes méthodes d'accompagnement pour le Clavecin ou pour l'Orgue, 4to. 1732.
5. Livre de Clavecin en Concerts, 1741.
6. Traité de l'Harmonie réduite à ses principes naturels, 4to. 1722.
7. Nouveau système de musique théorique, 4to. 1726.
8. Génération Harmonique, ou traité de musique théorique et pratique, 8vo. 1737.
9. Dissertation sur l'accompagnement, 8vo.
10. Dissertation du principe de l'harmonie, 8vo. 1750.
11. Nouvelles Réflexions de M. Rameau sur sa démonstration du Principe de l'harmonie, 8vo. 1752.
12. Réponse à la Lettre de M. Euler, 8vo. 1752.
13. Observations sur notre instinct pour la musique, 8vo. 1754.
14. Erreurs sur la musique dans l'Encyclopedie, 8vo. 1756.
15. Réflexions sur la maniere de former la voix et d'apprendre la musique, et sur nos facultés en générale pour tous les arts d'exercise, 1752.

R A Y N A L.

1. Histoire de Stadhouderat, 12mo. 1748.
2. Histoire du Parlement d'Angleterre, 12mo. 1748.
3. Anecdotes historiques, militaires et politiques de l'Europe depuis l'Elévation de Charles V.

au

- au trone de l'empire jusqu'au Traité d'Aix la Chapelle, 12mo. 3 vols. 1753.
4. Ecole militaire, composée par ordre du Gouvernement, 12mo. 3 vols. 1764.
 5. Querelles Littéraires, ou Mémoire pour servir à l'histoire des Révolutions de la République des Lettres depuis Homere jusqu'à nos jours, 12mo. 4 vols. 1764.

R E A U M U R.

A natural philosopher of rare and genuine merit; whose works are truly original, and merit the attention of all people.

1. Examen de la soie des Araignées, 4to. 1710.
2. L'Art de convertir le fer forgé en acier, 4to. 1722.
3. Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire des Insectes, 4to. 7 vols. 1748.
4. L'Art de faire éclore et d'élever en toute saison des oiseaux domestiques de toutes especes, 12mo. 2 vols. 1751.
5. Pratique de l'art de faire éclore des oiseaux domestiques, 12mo. 1751.

R E Y D E L L E T.

Mademoiselle. Best known by her Lettre à M. de la Place sur les Discours aux Welches contenant l'apologie des François. An indifferent apology indeed!

R I C C O B O N I.

Madame. An entertaining and agreeable novelist. Her fables are interesting, and the stile pleasing. Her best pieces are;

1. Histoire de Marquis de Crecy, 12mo. 1759.

2. Let-

2. Lettres de Mistris Fanni, 12mo. 2 vols.
1759.
3. Lettres de Juliette Catesby, 12mo. 3 vols.
1759.
4. Histoire de Miss Jenny, 12mo. 4 vols. 1764.
5. Mémoires de Maladi B***, 4 vols. 12mo.
6. Amelie traduite; 12mo. 2 vols.

R I T T E R.

His Reflexions sur l'industrie et l'utilité d'encourager et de perfectionner les Méchaniques. Berne Mémoires 1764, vol. 1st, is an admirable piece abounding with solid and judicious reflections.

R O B E R T.

One of the best geographers of France, his compositions are judicious, and of good authority, and his maps equal to any extant.

1. Abrégé des differens systêmes du monde, de la sphère, et des usages des globes, 12mo.
2. Usage des globes célestes et terrestres, 12mo.
1751.
3. Introduction à la Géographie par Samson, 8vo.
1743.
4. Géographie moderne abrégée, 12mo. 1748.
5. Atlas portatif universel et militaire composé d'après les meilleures cartes, 4to. 1748.
6. Atlas universel complet en cent cartes géographiques, folio, 1752.
7. Observations critiques sur les nouvelles découvertes de l'amiral de la Fuente. 12mo.
1753.
8. Essai sur l'histoire de la Géographie, 12mo.
1755.

ROUQUET.

Chiefly known by his *L'Etat des Arts en Angleterre*, 12mo. 1755.

ROUSSEAU.

Genius, originality, and persecution, have rendered his name famous over the whole globe.

1. Discours qui a remporté le Prix à l'Académie de Dijon en l'année 1750, sur cette question proposée par la même Académie; si le rétablissement des Sciences et des Arts a contribué à épurer les Mœurs, 12mo.
2. Observations de M. J. J. R. sur la Réponse qui a été faite à son discours, 12mo.
3. Lettre de M. J. J. R. à M. Grimm sur la réfutation de son discours par M. Gautier, 12mo. 1751.
4. Dernière Réponse de M. J. J. R. 12mo. 1751.
5. Préface de Narcisse. — The preface is much better than the comedy.
6. Narcisse, ou l'Amant de lui-même, comédie en prose.
7. Dissertation sur la musique moderne, 8vo. 1743.
8. Lettre sur la musique Française, 12mo. 1753.
9. The articles concerning musick in the *Encyclopædia*.
10. Lettre sur la musique Française, 1754.
11. Le Devin du Village, intermede, 1752.
12. Discours sur l'Economie politique, in the *Encyclopædia*, and afterwards, 12mo, 1754.
13. Extrait du projet de Paix Perpétuelle de M. l'Abbé de St. Pierre, 12mo. 1761.

14. Dis-

14. Discours sur l'Origine et les Fondemens de l'Inégalité parmi les hommes, 12mo. 1754.
15. Lettre a M. d'Alembert sur son article Genève dans le VII^{me}. volume de l'Encyclopédie.
16. Julie, où la Nouvelle Heloise, 12mo. 6 vols. 1760.
17. Emile, ou de l'Education, 12mo. 4 vols. 1761.
18. Du Contract Social, 8vo. 1762.
19. Lettre à l'Archeveque de Paris, 12mo. 1764.
20. Lettres ecrites de la Montagne, 12mo. 2 vols. 1764.

I cannot but esteem this writer as one of the most remarkable men that ever appeared in the world: He began his literary career with sporting sentiments, which appeared mere paradoxes, but on the least reflection, carried a different idea from his consistent manner of treating them. All Europe cried out, it would be impossible, if he continued to publish, to be consistent—he must inevitably contradict himself—but the contrary of all this happened—he published more than ever, still paradoxical, as it is called, but never so consistent: In short, the sentiments of this remarkable man do not flow from caprice, whimsicalness, or a phantastic love of being different from other people, but from a philosophical, genuine, and consistent, originality of character. He views mankind with very different eyes from the multitude: Does it therefore follow, that his ideas, from being uncommon, should be absurd? His Essay on the Inutility of the Sciences, and particularly that on the Inequality among mankind, gained him the titles of Savage—Misanthropist, &c. Those who read

read them and were disgusted—were lifted into a new world—into fairy land—they cried Rousseau is all absurdity!—not remembering that his genius moved in a sphere superior to their own—they forgot that some share of that wonderful force of mind, which gave him such powers of combination, and which enabled him for ever to think for himself, was necessary to enter into the spirit of his sentiments: No wonder his writings were so much condemned, when they were estimated by the common standard of the age.

The two pieces above mentioned, raised our author a number of answerers—some of whom were very liberal in satirical reflections on him; I have a very long list of answers to them, some penn'd by the first writers in France—not one, however, could match him in clear and satisfactory arguments. They all begin with out-cries, and amazement, at his absurdity—and seem to think it beneath them to answer *paradoxes*, the ridiculousness of which, say they, sufficiently answer themselves: if so, it must be that circumstance alone, which is to answer them, for as often as they have been attacked, not once have they been refuted. If we give the name of paradox to all sentiments, which contradict the received opinions of the age, Rousseau is certainly very paradoxical; but such a definition, is far enough from being just; and his opinions are attended with a precision too philosophical—and an adherence to nature too invariably exact, to be taxed with being, properly speaking, paradoxical.

His answer to M. d'Alembert's article *Geneve*, in the Encyclopedia, was no sooner published, than

a fresh herd of *answerers* appeared : He was again attacked from all quarters, as a paradoxical fool, that deserved nothing but contempt ; and yet in that piece he fully proves his point, nor have one of his answerers been able to defend, in a satisfactory manner, M. d'Alembert's scheme of establishing a theatre at Geneva : The reasons M. Rousseau offers against it, are clear and decisive—his examination of many theatrical pieces, critically just—his cursory remarks on several subjects, lively, original, and judicious—and, in a word, his whole argument, either unanswerable in itself, or rendered so by the superior abilities of its author.

But the opposition which M. Rousseau met with on the publication of these pieces, was nothing to what he experienced on his essay upon the French music appearing ; an army of *Cossacs* broke loose upon the kingdom, could not have raised a greater ferment, than did this pamphlet : Paris was in a flame : The author was before, a whimsical, paradoxical fellow ; but the case changed ; he was now an impious, sacrilegious, mortal, that dared to attack the most holy of things—that dared to write against the music of France !

He proves in this piece, most incontestably, that the French have no music at all ; ridicules the ridiculous vanity of their pretences, with such keen and lively raillery ; and makes such judicious observations on music in general, that it was in vain above forty authors immediately attacked him : He had too much reason on his side to be foiled in this dispute, more than in any of the former ones. The multiplicity of the answers that appeared to this piece, and the heats it gave rise to all over France, proved sufficiently how gauling it was

was to the advocates of the French music, and their musicians—had it not been founded in truth, the nation would not have been so hurt. He finished this attack in the most triumphant manner, by his criticism on the Opera, in his *Julie*.

That celebrated novel—so tender—so agreeable—so natural—so elegant—so characteristical—so philosophical, is one of the finest monuments of the genius of the present age. The stile never was excelled—the boldness and strength of colouring in the descriptive parts, never equalled—those letters, which one might almost call *essays*, on different subjects, superior to every thing of the kind that was ever penned—the *language of love* never before lived in print; the tender pathetic delicacy of the letters on that subject, are not imitations of nature, they are nature herself, they are the breath of inspiration—It must, however, be confessed, that in the painting of character—in the rare talent of portraying, the distinguishing strokes of originality, the giving to each personage the sentiments which could alone proceed from him: in this art Richardson is superior to all mankind; the least variety of whose characters, and the amazing and distinct originality of each, form a degree of genius, in this respect, not equalled by either Homer or Shakespear. But great as Richardson's merit, Rousseau had the genius to attempt, with success the same species of composition, and in many respects to exceed him. But *Voltaire's Prophecy*! say you. True; that indeed I forgot: The enemy of his reputation has left a proof of the superior excellence of *Julie*; he has, in one instance, exhausted his wit, his criticism, and his

satire, in exhibiting in the most striking point of view, every fault with which that novel can be taxed—where he found faults, he has exaggerated them, and where they were wanting he has invented them; no book was ever more severely ridiculed: If it was bad—if the charms which captivated all the world, were imaginary, and the effects of prejudice or blindness—if instead of the most striking beauties it contained nothing but the most blundering absurdities; doubtless such a satirical examination adorned with such poignancy of wit and ridicule, must damn the book at once—must open the fascinated eyes of all Europe, and make them despise this hour, what was their admiration the last—Unfortunately, however, to the wit and envy of Voltaire, nothing of all this happened—his prophesy was read, and it made people laugh but it had no other effect on *Julie*, but establishing its reputation for ever. It is read as much as before—it is more and more admired, and will be the admiration of future ages: A book that has weathered such a storm, receives a stronger stamp of excellency than it otherwise could possibly gain: Fifty panegyricks from the first pens in Europe, would not so highly have added to its reputation: Add to this, that a composition of any kind, that is *faultless*, must be good for nothing, but to satisfy the critics: Tell me of a book that has scarce any faults or absurdities, you give me a sufficient character of it—I desire never to look in it. The best works of the greatest authors that ever existed are full of absurdities—especially if such works are truly original. One instance to the contrary of this cannot be brought, recollect Homer, Danté, Ariosto, Milton, and Shakespear.—

Emile,

Emile, at last appears, and all the bull dogs in France, and the yapping curs of Geneva, fly at once upon its author. A ferment is raised against him for his attack upon religion, which is astonishing to them who have read the works of preceding unbelievers: It is impossible he should treat any subject, in a manner inferior to others, but multitudes have gone greater lengths, and wrote upon religion, with much less ceremony than Rousseau, that never experienced a quarter of his persecution, and that even in Catholic countries—witness his enemy Voltaire in the *Oeuvres Philosophes Sans Souci*, in which even a future state is absolutely denied, with other tenets equally pernicious, it is no answer to assert (truly or not) that Voltaire did not compose them; he certainly was the publisher, and as such, on the persecuting plan, should have been punished—Voltaire, *it is said*, lays them to the King of Prussia's door, but that monarch gave the lye to the assertion immediately, and ordered them to be burnt at Berlin, by the hands of the common hangman. In respect to the disbelief and ridicule of all religion, there is no comparison between *Emile* and those poems—or indeed many other works published during the present age. See likewise l'Esprit of M. Helvetius, composed with all possible sophistry, and evidently intended to break every link of society, to set all mankind free from the feelings of humanity—to destroy every domestic tie—and root out every publick virtue. From whence then comes Rousseau's merciless persecution? Not from religion, but his old enemies—I have no doubt, the musical tribe in France had as great a share in raising the spirit of persecution against him, as ever a regard for religion had: He suffered more from

having attacked the Opera at Paris, than christianity: But in catholic countries, we may look for bigotry and persecution, not however, as was before imagined in a protestant republic; but Geneva is no more: I desire no other proof than her listening so readily to French dictates, to satisfy me that she will soon be enslaved—she is already under the influence, and will soon be under the tyranny of a neighbour.

I am far from meaning to defend M. Rousseau's freedom in religious matters: I would only be understood to point out the ridiculousness of persecuting him, or any one else: There is great absurdity in it, on all accounts: but it is tenfold, in respect of the good of religion: From the beginning of the world to this hour, persecution always gave rise to an unbounded spirit of opposition, and the most sovereign contempt, for the opinions of persecutors, for one infidel whom the writings of unbelievers have made, an hundred have arose from the spirit of persecution: for this plain reason, false doctrines, stand in need of it, from an innate weakness, which will not bear examination; true ones want it not, but will stand upon their own truth, and the nearer examined, the clearer they will appear: What therefore are the conclusions of unprejudiced people, from seeing the spirit of persecution take root among the professors of religion? Surely it would be wiser to use reason and argument, than fire and faggot!

Emile, in all other respects, is one of the most original and consistent works ever published. It contains the most judicious ideas of education, the world ever knew, and expressed in the happiest manner. If put completely in practice, it would
be

be of unbounded utility to mankind ; and if only general ideas are caught from the spirit of them, judiciously executed, they would be of great importance in the common practice of the world : As great an opposition as parts of this treatise met with, none has attacked, with any reason, the whole. And there are many passages in it most admirably conceived, and adorned with the most just and pleasing language. In a word, it is an original, and highly useful performance, which tends to make mankind more healthy, vigorous, sensible and happy. Can any work have a better design !

His treatise *du Contrat Sociale*, is composed with more order and regularity than is common with him : It is a very valuable work, and proves the author, in many respects, to be a true politician. His letter to the archbishop of Paris, is a sensible justification of himself, and ridicules with great propriety the parliament of Paris, interfering in the affair of his persecution : His letters written from the mountains, are remarkable—but many passages in them are nothing more than a defence of the profession of faith of the Savoyard curate ; but the others, concerning government in general, and that of Geneva in particular, are curious and instructive.

It has been the misfortune of this celebrated man, to raise himself enemies and calumniators, not only by his *writings*, but by his *life*—You will naturally suppose from thence, that it must be very vain or wicked : nothing however less true ; He has always in his private life been reckoned a man of most irreproachable probity, and great goodness of heart—but he has been so unhappy as to differ from the generality of the world, in some material points of conduct : The first principle of

his soul is *honest independancy*; and to that principle he has hitherto been most *uncommonly* addicted—and most consistently: He has rejected more than once those riches, which it is common to hunt after with such eagerness, while he with difficulty subsisted himself by copying music for pay, he refused a handsome pension offered him by the marchioness of Pompadour, in the name of the king of France. She then sent him some music to copy; which he executed, and as soon as she received it, she sent him three hundred lewis d'ors as a recompense, from which sum he deducted a few livres, the amount of his work, and returned her all the rest. After this he has the offer of a pension of an hundred pounds a year from the king of England—he refuses it—that is, he is determined to live free and independant—a thing very inconsistent with receiving a portion of public money as the wages of idleness. Such noble, animated, and glorious sentiments—such a conduct, so superior to all sentiments, involves him in equal ridicule with the most paradoxical of his works, the truth is; his works and his life are superior to the age he lives in: if we have not the taste to relish the one, we shall not have the honesty to applaud the other. A consistent determination to accept no pension, is such an otherwise unheard of sentiment, that it is a ten thousand times greater paradox, than one combined of all Rousseaus. A man that can so act, is a phenomenon; a being beyond the ideas of the times; the world cannot elevate its *practice* so high, and therefore aims by ridicule to reduce his *sentiments* to its own medium: but all his enemies have to say for it, is, to call him a visionary madman;—and he has been so called more than once.

ROUXELIN,

ROUXELIN.

His *Réflexions sur les moyens de faire naître l'amour du travail dans le cœur des peuples*, is a very sensible performance, and abounds with some judicious observations on manufactures and their importance,

ROZIERE.

Best known by the pieces entituled, *Campagne de Louis prince de Condé en Flandres en 1674—12mo. 1765*, and *Campagne du marquis de Crequi en Lorraine, et en Alsace en 1677. 8vo. 1765.*

SAINTFOIX.

A well known writer, whose works have many admirers in France, but are not much known elsewhere. His theatrical pieces are his best productions.

1. *Lettres Turques, et lettres de Nedim Coggia, 12mo. 1750.*
2. *Essais historiques sur Paris, 12mo. 2 vols. 1754, and 4 vols. 1762.*
3. *Histoire Abrégée des Guerres de la France, avec l'Angleterre, 8vo.*
4. *Pieces de Théâtres, 12mo. 2 vols.*

SALLIER.

Very well known for his *Catalogue des Livres de la Bibliothèque du Roi*, folio, many volumes.

SAVERIEM.

One of the best mathematical writers in France; His works are very useful, and in great esteem.

1. Dis-

1. Discours sur la navigation et la physique expérimentale, 4to. 1744.
2. Discours sur la manœuvre des Vaisseaux, 4to. 1744.
3. Nouvelle théorie de la manoeuvre des Vaisseaux à la Portée des Pilotes, 8vo. 1745.
4. Recherches historiques sur l'origine et des Progres de la Construction des Navires des Anciens, 4to. 1747.
5. La Mâture discutée et soumise à de nouvelles Loix, 8vo. 1747.
6. L'Art de mesurer sur mer le sillage des Vaisseaux, avec une idée de l'état d'armement des Vaisseaux de France, 8vo. 1749.
7. Description et usage de Spheres et des Globes, 12mo. 1750.
8. Traité des Instrumens, propres à l'observer les astres sur mer, où l'on donne la construction et l'usage d'un nouvel instrument, 12mo. 1752.
9. Dictionnaire universel de Mathématique et de Physique, 4to. 2 vols. 1752.
10. Many letters and dissertations upon navigation, &c. in the Mercurès.
11. Histoire critique des Infinimens petits, 4to. 1753.
12. Dictionnaire d'Architecture civile et hydraulique par d'Aviler augmenté, 4to. 1755.
13. Histoire des Philosophes modernes.
14. Theatrical pieces.

SAUSSURE.

Well known by his Lettre sur les avantages des Semailles hatives et profondes. Berne Memoirs 1764, vol. 2d.

SALAGNAC.

SALAGNAC.

Among other performances, his *Lettre sur les Arbres voyers*, deserves attention.

SELLIUS.

1. Description historique et géographique du Brabant Hollandois, et de la Flandre Hollandoise, 12mo. 1748.
2. Histoire des anciennes revolutions de globe terrestre, 12mo. 1752.
3. Institutiones Physicæ.
4. Historia Jeredinis.

SEIGNEUX.

His *Essai sur la question proposée par la Société Oeconomique de Berne, Seroit-il utile de convertir en fonds clos ou particuliers les communes, &c.* is sensible and judicious.

SILHOUTTE,

A famous Financier in France, who is thought by many unprejudiced persons, would have restored order to the revenues of the kingdom, had he been suffered to prosecute his schemes without interruption: He is better known by his political projects than his writings, although the latter are not without merit.

1. Idée générale du Gouvernement et de la morale des Chinois, 12mo. 1729.
2. Réflexions politiques sur les plus grands princes traduites de Gracian, 4to. 1730. and 12mo.
3. Lettres sur les transactions publiques du Regne d'Elizabeth, 12mo. 1736.
4. *Essai sur l'homme* traduit de Pope, 12mo. 1736.

5. *Essai*

5. Essai sur la Critique traduit de Pope, 12mo. 1736.
6. Mélanges de Littérature et de Philosophie traduits de Pope.
7. Epitres morales de Pope.
8. Lettres philosophiques et morales, 12mo. 2 vols.
9. Mémoires sur les anciennes limites de l'Acadie avec M. le marquis de la Galiffonniere, 4to. 3 vols. 1755.

S O L I G N A C.

Le chevalier de.

1. Récréations littéraires, ou recueil de poésies et de lettres, 12mo. 1723.
2. Les Amours d'Horace, 12mo. 1728.
3. Lettres sur l'histoire du Roi de Pologne, 1741.
4. Histoire générale de Pologne, 12mo. 10 vols. 1750.
5. Amusement des Eaux de Schaalbach, de bains de Wisbaden et de Schlangenbad, 8vo. 1738.
6. La Saxe Galante, 12mo. 1735.
7. Quatrians, ou maximes sur l'éducation des enfans, 12mo. 1738.
8. Mémoires de la Société royale de Nancy; Rédigé: 8vo. —
9. Eloge Historique de M. le Président de Montesquieu, 4to. 1755.

S T A N I S L A S.

King of Poland, Duke of Lorraine and Bar. The events of the life of this very celebrated monarch; or rather his adventures (for they have more the air of romance than history) are perfectly well known: He has in every situation of life supported his character, in a manner that does honour to the

the intuitive judgment of Charles XII. And he is a proof of the advantages attending the regal dignity being conferred on one born a subject—throughout history the best kings were first private men.

1. Avis à S. M. la Reine de France (his daughter) en partant pour la France. Inserted in the Journal de Verdun Juillet, 1725.
2. Entretien de l'ame avec Dieu, en Polonois et en François, 8vo. 1745.
3. Le Philosophe Chrétien, 12mo. 1749.
4. Combat de la Volonté et de la Raison, 12mo. 1749.
5. La Voix libre du Citoyen, ou Observations sur le gouvernement de Pologne, 12mo. 1749.
6. Réponse d'Ariste aux conseils de l'Amitié, 12mo. 1750.
7. Réflexions sur divers sujets de morale, 8vo. 1750.
8. Deux discours l'un pour prouver que le vrai bonheur consiste à faire des heureux; dans l'autre on fait voir que l'Espérance est un bien dont on ne connoit pasassez le prix, 1750.
9. Réponse au discours du Citoyen de Geneve, qui à Remporté le prix à l'academie de Dijon en 1750. 8vo. 1751.
10. Entretiens d'un Européen avec un insulaire du Royaume de Dumocala, 12mo. 1752, and 1754.
11. Pensées sur les dangers de l'esprit inserted in the l'Anné littéraire, vol. 5th. 1754.
12. Lettre du Roi de Pologne, où il raconte la maniere dont il est sorti de Dantzick.

His works are in 4 vols. 8vo. and 4 vols. 12mo. 1762, and 1765.

SPRUNGLI.

Well known for his piece in the Berne Memoirs, entituled *Essai sur la question Seroit il avantageux de partager les communes, d'abolir le parcours, &c. &c.*

SUTIERES.

His *Agriculture Expérimentale à l'usage des agriculteurs, fermiers et laboureurs*, 12mo. 1765. is a noble title, but the contents by no means answer the expectation it must raise; especially when the reader is told that so little a duodecimo is the result of twenty years practice. "I begin," says M. de Sutieres, "with the epidemical maladies of beasts, I prove, that, in general, they are afflicted, meerly because they are often fed in pastures, upon which the influences of the air, the vapours, and exhalations of the earth expand a kind of visible venom, which has more or less malignity according to seasons, climates, and the circumstances of time and place. The artificial grasses, such as lucern, sainfoine and clover, are more susceptible than others, of the impression of this venom; because their leaves being broader, thicker, and harder, than those of natural grass, preserve it a longer time, consequently there are greater inconveniencies in suffering cattle to pasture upon them; and above all, from the end of September, to the end of March: Seasons in which the fogs, the influence of the air, and the vapours of the earth, are more frequent, and more dangerous than at other times. I shall display the inutility of these same artificial grasses, and how greatly they are prejudicial in many provinces of this kingdom; and yet more so in the north." And in another place he says—"We need not seek for the causes of the contagi-

ous maladies, which have for many years made such ravages among our cattle. They most certainly proceed from the bad pasturage of artificial grasses; to which we conduct them, without examining beforehand, whether the lucerne, sainfoine, and clover, is free from rust. This sort of rust is always produced either by bad vapours, and exhalations from the soil, or by those unwholesome winds, which the countrymen call *red-winds*, or the fogs, or infected air which passes over certain countries. We very often find that cows which feed in such pastures, are poisoned with this rust. Some are blown and burst, others have maladies in the mouth and tongue; and at last, the whole head is disordered, and in four or five hours, the evil becomes incurable.”——again in another place——“It is not therefore in the culture of artificial grasses, so destructive in general to cattle, that we should direct the husbandmen to employ themselves, but to render fertile those they possess already. I am not willing to suppose that the author of nature uselessly created lucerne, clover, &c. but that ought not to prevent our taking care not to introduce them, in a country where the vapours and exhalations of the earth, or the influence of the air, are strong enough to render them prejudicial to cattle. Who is ignorant that the lucerne of Provence is more esteemed than that of other climates? Besides all this, it is very useless in many countries to sow artificial grasses, in land proper for corn or good forage, since by improving the natural grasses, they would be highly sufficient for the nourishment of beasts, and yield a greater profit in all sorts of countries; and the animals being more wholesomely nourished, would answer better to the farmer.”

I have translated the above extracts from M. de Sutieres' book, to give you a tolerable idea, not
only

only of his absurdity, but also of that of too many French writers, on the same subject, whose names I have omitted in this catalogue: Nothing can be more truly absurd, nor more contradictory to the effects of the most common practice, in a variety of countries, than this senseless condemnation of certain plants, without which there can scarcely be any profitable husbandry; which alone lay the foundations for a vigorous growth of corn, and which, judiciously managed, cannot be attended with such a train of poisoning consequences as are here attributed to them. One circumstance is worth observation, it must be the custom in France to fat oxen upon green clover) or at least we are to understand it from the preceding quotations) a practice which I should have imagined could nowhere answer. Beasts in other parts of Europe require a very different regimen.

S U P L I X.

Best known by his *Le Consolateur pour servir de réponse à la Théorie de l'Impôt et autres écrits sur l'Économie politique*, 12mo. 1763. This gentleman is a very extraordinary politician indeed! His two first chapters are on Agriculture; He sets out with affirming, that it is in perfection enough in France, and wants no assistance: Happy for her neighbours, if the government can be convinced of this: In his third and fourth he would make us believe *by insinuation and comparison*, that agriculture is very unfavourable to population. Exclusive companies and privileges in commerce, are, according to him, highly beneficial; and he more than once gives us reason to suppose, that he is of opinion the subject in France is by no means taxed enough—and that it would be very ridiculous to make the tobacco and salt, a free trade! What idea must we conceive of such a writer?

a writer. Authors whose notions are *free* in points of a religious tendency, or in other words, in points of opinion, are burnt and beheaded, but a writer that deserves a halter for every paragraph in his book, will most certainly meet with no persecution! Such is the difference between attacking *opinions* and *realities*!

T E R T R E.

1. Ode à M. de Lowendahl sur la prise de Berenop-zoom.
2. Abrégé de l'histoire d'Angleterre, 12mo. 3 vols. 1751.
3. Histoire des conjurations, conspirations et révolutions célèbres, 12mo. 10 vols.
4. Mémoires du marquis de Chouppes, 12mo. 1753.
5. La Suite de la Bibliothèque amusante et instructive commencée par le P. Niceron, 12mo. 2 vols. 1755.
6. Pieces in several literary Journals.

T I L L E T.

An author of genuine and uncommon merit. It is difficult to assert which is greatest, the importance of his subjects, or the admirable manner in which he has treated them. In one word, he is an experimental philosopher.

1. Dissertation sur la ductilité des métaux et les moyens de l'augmenter, qui a remporté le prix de l'Académie de Bordeaux, 4to. 1750.
2. Dissertation sur la cause qui corrompt et noircit les grains de bled dans les épis, et sur les moyens de prévenir ces accidens, qui a remporté le prix de l'Académie de Bordeaux, 4to. 1750.

B b

3. Suite

3. Suite des expériences et réflexions relatives à la Dissertation sur la cause, &c. 4to. 1755.

These pieces are inferior to none that ever were published in respect of a most satisfactory experimental foundation: The conclusions are clear and precise, and place the subject beyond all future doubts.

T I L L E T.

Titon du.

1. Description du Parnasse François exécuté en bronze, 12mo. 1726.
2. Essais sur les honneurs et les monumens accordés aux savans, 12mo. 1734.
3. Le Parnasse François, avec deux supplémens, folio, 1732. 1744. and 1755.

T O U R.

Seran de la. An agreeable and sensible writer, whose works are generally read,

1. Histoire d'Epaminondas, 12mo. 1738.
2. Histoire de Scipion l'Africain, 12mo. 1738.
3. Histoire de Philippe de Macedoine, 12mo. 1740.
4. Amusemens de la Raïson, 12mo. 2 vols. 1747.
5. Histoire de Catilina, 12mo. 1749.
6. Tragedie de Caliste, 12mo. 1750.
7. Histoire de Monley Mahamet fils du Roi de Maroc, 12mo. 1745.
8. L'art de sentir et de juger en matière de Gout, 12mo. 2 vols. 1762.
9. Parallele de la conduite des Carthagenois à l'égard des Romains dans le second guerre Punique, avec la conduite de l'Angleterre à l'égard de la France, 1758. The most partial, weak and trifling calumny on the British

tish nation, that I remember to have read in the French language.

10. *Essai historique sur M. de Barrailh*, 1762.

TOUSSAINT.

Has translated many works from the English; the piece of his own composing, which gained him reputation, is *Les Mœurs*, 12mo. which has run through many editions, and been translated into most of the european languages. Such success would make one suppose it a work of uncommon merit—and yet, to venture a private opinion, it appears to me a stiff, starched, pedantic work, which has neither that depth of sentiment which renders a book valuable, whatever may be the language—nor that elegant airyness of manner which makes a work agreeable—whatever may be the matter.

THIERRIAT.

Best known by his *Observations sur la Culture des Arbres à haute tige*, 12mo. 1760.

TRAVERS.

Baron de. 1. *Abrégé de l'Art de la Guerre de M. le Maréchal de Preyssegur*, 12mo. 1752.

2. *Extrait de la Première partie du Traité de l'art de la Guerre de M. le Maréchal de Preyssegur.*

3. *Etudes militaires pour servir d'introduction à l'instruction méthodique de l'art de la Guerre*, 12mo. 1755.

TRUBLET.

A writer of great note in France, and of a little in other countries, his works may increase in estimation at home, but, I may venture to prophesy, they never will abroad. His thoughts are far

fetched, and affected, and his stile most miserably quaint and perplexed.

1. Lettre à madame * * * * M. Houdart de la Mothe, 8vo. 1732.
2. Essais sur divers sujets de Littérature, et de Morale, 12mo. 4 vols. from 1735. to 1760.
3. He *worked* in the Journal des Sçavans.
4. Panegyrique des Saints précédés de Reflexions sur l'éloquence en générale, 12mo. 1755.
5. Many scraps in the Mercur.
6. Second lettre d'un Ami à un Amien 1748, au sujet des Hollandois.
7. Maudemens du Cardinal de Tencin depuis 1739.
8. L'Avertissement de l'essai sur la formation des corps organisés, edit. de Paris.
9. Pensées sur la philosophie, les sciences, les opinions, les systemes. Merc. 1762, &c.

TURPIN.

Comte de.

1. Essai sur l'art de la Guerre, 4to. 2 vols. 1754.
2. Amusemens philosophiques et littéraires de deux amis, 12mo. 2 vols. 1754.

TSCHIFFELY.

His pieces in the Berne Mémoires are truly valuable; and highly deserving of that reputation they have so justly gained their author. The following ones should be particularly remarked.

1. Mémoire sur la culture de la Garance. Some introductory observations to his experiments on this plant, are applicable to all countries; as they will entertain you, I shall therefore translate them. "The more a country applies itself to vary its productions, the nearer she approaches to that important

portant point of keeping her diverse commodities at a just price, and consequently draws from the soil the greatest possible advantage. A too great abundance of any particular commodity, in reducing too much the price, necessarily induces the countryman to neglect the culture. A truth of which we have been too long ignorant; but which is at present acknowledged by all enlightened minds.

We need never to fear, that if we introduce divers articles of culture, which are known to be but of a second necessity, and they should come to engross the general attention, more than those which are absolutely necessary, such as corn; the chief of the husbandmen will neglect such necessary articles, and throw themselves too vigorously into the cultivation of the secondary ones. The old ways will ever carry the preference in the large scale of culture, with the generality of farmers: There must be multitudes of successful experiments by cultivators the most industrious before one will be commonly followed. Always timid, justly avaricious of his time, his land, and his manure, a farmer will never make any but very small trials, out of the common road. The culture of hemp and flax, is incontestibly much more profitable than that of corn or spelt. The countryman is not ignorant of this; for they have been cultivated ages. Nevertheless, gentlemen, your efforts for directing his views to them, evidently prove my system. It is now happily the greatest neat produce of each kind of plant, that is always the reason for advances in money, in labour, and in dung; a circumstance which always prevents the common husbandman from abandoning them, They become the occupation of the more intelligent cultivators, that are richer, more curious, and more able calculators. By their means the day

labourers, too much oppressed, too little employed, a class of men of infinite importance to every state, find a subsistence more certain, in being taught to cultivate those more valuable articles on their own little inheritances, * the effecting which, in proportion to their abilities, would attach them with pleasure to a country where they found occupations useful enough for the most numerous families.

Many circumstances have prevented our introducing and extending several branches of culture more or less advantageous. The little encouragement on the part of the government, the attachment of the people to their practice, its entire removal from all novelties, owing to essays ill conducted, and unsuccessful; and above all the prejudice so general, even to ridicule, against our soil and climate.

If our ancestors, living among vast forests, and impenetrable marshes, nourishing themselves with acorns, and the produce of their cattle, by the pernicious principle of that prejudice to which they were continually attached; if content, that pest of industry, as Mandeville calls it, had made them neglect trials of a new culture, after having attempted so unhappily those of the conquest of a more fertile country, we should not enjoy at present in abundance, a thousand productions which habit and ignorance, make people of all sorts imagine to be the original fruits of our country. Do we not know that the climate of all countries improves itself in proportion as population and cul-

* The word I translate, *Day Labourer*, is *Journalier*; from this passage it seems the labourers in Switzerland have each their plot of ground — He cannot mean farmers. —

ture increases? By the testimony of our old men, the river which washes our walls was regularly frozen in the time of their youth. Its banks have been much better cultivated within an age, and at present it is never frozen, or at least, but very rarely. If it was entirely cleared from the melancholy neighbourhood of the forests of fir, would not our plains feel less of a cold and sterile influence? If the rivers were more navigable, the torrents less impetuous, and the marshes drained? These labours, which are impossible only to the eyes of idleness and sloth, would necessarily give to the plains of Switzerland, one of the most pleasing climates of Europe.

It is in consequence of these principles, that I dare predict to our country a sky more soft, and a temperature more favourable to every kind of cultivation, if firm and immoveable in your generous cares, you continue, gentlemen, to enlighten your countrymen, to encourage them by your approbation, and by your example, and above all to inspire with your zeal your pupils. It is owing to the actual confidence which I have in our climate, that I have attempted with success the culture of some plants, either entirely unknown in our country, or which have failed from not being resolutely attempted."

2. Instruction sur la méthode de renouveler les vieux Pres par les Labours.

3. Nouvelles Réflexions sur la culture du Lin dans la Canton de Berne.

4. Expériences du culture de diverses especes d'herbes propres à servir de Fourage; Du Lin; Et de quelques sortes de grains; De la nielle et carie du Bled—

5. Mémoire sur la culture du Millet d'Afrique.

6. Mémoire sur la culture du bled Sarazini.

T S C H A R N E R.

His pieces in the Berne Memoirs are of distinguished merit.

1. Mémoires sur la Pin.
2. Observations sur la Rouille et sur la Nielle ou Carex du Bled.
3. Essai d'un Mémoire sur la methode de planter le Chene.

T U R B I L L Y.

Marquis de.

I may without the least hesitation assert, that this nobleman ought to be considered as the most useful author that France ever produced. In point of utility, the good of his own country, and the general benefit of all mankind, how lightly ought the french to esteem their Corneilles, Racines, Voltaires, and a hundred such authors, compared to one Turbilly! If every author, from the beginning of the world to the present time, on finishing any composition, had asked themselves, *Will this be of any use to my fellow creatures?* and burnt all which did not give their conscience an opportunity to answer in the affirmative; how few, very few, books should we at present possess! What a distinguishing rank would the works of this nobleman hold among those few! Where should we find one that ought to be classed before them?

1. Mémoire sur le Defrichemens, 8vo. 1749.
2. Mémoire sur la Culture du Grand Chou d'Anjou adressé à la Societé œcon. de Berne.—
Memoirs 1764. vol. 1st.

VILLARS.

Le duc de. Alphonse l'impuissant, Tragedie
Comique, 1740.

VELLEY.

Chiefly known by his *Histoire de France*, depuis l'établissement de la monarchie jusqu'au regne de Louis XIV. 1755. 12mo. 16 vols. — 1761 — and 1765.

VICAT.

Madame. Observations sur les Abeilles. Bern
Memoirs, 1764. vol. 1st.

VILLENEUVE.

Madame de.

1. Le Phenix conjugal, 12mo. 1753.
2. La Jeune Americaine, ou les Contes marins, 12mo. 4 vols. 1740, 1743.
3. Les Contes de cette année, 12mo. 1744.
4. Les Belles Solitaires, 12mo. 3 vols. 1745.
5. Le Beau frere suppose, 12mo. 4 vols. 1752.
6. La Jardiniere de Vincennes, ou les caprices de l'Amour et de la Fortune, 12mo. 5 vols. 1753.
7. Le Juge prevenu, 12mo. 1754.
8. Mesdemoiselles de Marsange, 12mo.
9. Anecdotes de la cour d'Alphonse XI. du nom, Roi de Castille, 12mo. 4 vols. 1756.
10. The following verses, *L'Homme heureux possible*,

La vie est un Instant, il en faut profiter;
 Rejetter avec soin tout préjugé nuisible,
 Croire un Dieu bienfaisant, croire un ami possible,
 Et connoître le prix du bonheur d'exister;
 Caresser la folie, estimer la sagesse,
 Aimer un seul objet, en être un peu jaloux,
 Etre toujours fidèle, et jamais n'être époux,
 Effleurer les talens, les aimer sans foiblesse,
 Se croire indifférent sur le mépris des sots,
 Avoir le coeur ouvert sur ses propres défauts,
 Etre content de soi, sans jamais le paroître;
 Se croire heureux enfin; c'est le moyen de l'être.

VILLES.

Madame. Instructions historiques, dogmatiques, et morales en faveur des laboureurs et autres habitans de la campagne, 12mo. 1746.

VIVENS.

Chevalier de. Well known by the following pieces, which have merit.

1. Essais sur les principes de la Physique, 12mo. 1746.
2. La nouvelle théorie du mouvement, 8vo. 1749.
3. Mémoire sur le vol. des Oiseaux.

VOLTAIRE.

It would take ten of these sheets to give a complete list of all the pieces which have issued from the pen of this celebrated genius. Many of them are so short, that the titles are half as long as the essays;

essays; and his best works are known in every corner of Europe. A more universal genius never lived—but like all universal geniuses he is super-excellent in nothing: But his wit, and the stile of his prose are incomparable. His poetry, particularly in the *Henriade*, and some of his tragedies, is nearly as good as we can conceive the language will admit; his invention is great and lively, his art of painting characters considerable: and his poetic stile shows a taste of harmony, which in almost any other language, would have been attended with universal success: However, no one will dispute that the works which will gain him fame with posterity, are his pieces in prose.

His *Age of Lewis XIV.* is an admirable work: In point of disposition, stile, and a lively justness of remarks, I know nothing equal to it: Nor can we by any means repeat with reason those absurd calumnies, under which the author for some time remained, of writing a history, which had no regular foundation in truth—and of considering nothing but the agreeable. On the contrary, the *Age of Lewis XIV.* if not so impartial as the reader could wish in every article, is nevertheless as much so as most other histories: Where you are to look for one clearly and indubitably impartial, I know not; but will venture to assert that none can be found more pleasing, picturesque, manly, or sensible, than that of which I am speaking; and none so completely entertaining.

His *Universal History*, likewise, deserves all the praise which any one can bestow on it. If there is such a faculty or sentiment, as the *Philosophical Spirit*, it certainly breathes throughout that excellent performance; which is rather the essence of a thousand histories, than a history itself—it is something better. The pleasing and penetrating man-

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ner in which the improvements of the human mind are traced and recorded, is indeed uncommonly judicious; and the stile, though not equal to that of the Age of Lewis XIV. is remarkably good.

In Biography, M. de Voltaire has scarce a superior: His life of Charles the XII. is an admirable composition, full of that boldness and strength of colouring which draws forth the object of pencil before our eyes that we more than form an idea—we see his heroes. Nothing can be more lively, judicious, or penetrating, than his remarks—nothing more elegant than the language. The authenticity of his facts was, however, carpt at by the critics, and he was weak enough, in consequence to compose his History of Peter the Great, on a very different plan: he introduces it with convincing all the world, by the most undoubted testimonies, that his relations concerning Charles XII. were strictly true: This was sufficient: One cannot but regret, that he did not compose the Life of Peter, with all the elegance of manner, which is so peculiar in Charles XII. indeed it is a work of M. de Voltaire's, and therefore must have undoubted merit—but is by no means equal to the other in any thing but authenticity; without being superior, even in that point.—As to the essays, letters, romances, sketches, criticisms, &c. &c. which have flowed in such abundance from his pen, they are lively and entertaining to an uncommon degree, but of late his pieces are greatly wanting in that fire and vivacity which distinguished his preceding years—And no wonder, for he is now seventy three!

V A R N I E R.

Mémoire sur la Culture de l'Orge qu'il nomme

me nud, du Seigle de Printemps, et du Colza,
1762.

VILLIERS.

Mémoire sur la Rétablissement de la Culture des
Terres en Champagne, 1762.

WERTH.

Well known for his Essay in the Bern Memoirs
1763, vol. 4th. entitled, Exemple de Passage
d'un paturage Commun.

WYDLER.

His Mémoire sur l'Etat du Commerce et des
Arts, dans le bas Aargau. Bern Memoirs 1764.
vol. 1st. is a very valuable piece.

WALDNER.

Description de la Culture du Platane de Virginie.
Bern Memoirs, 1763. vol. 2d.

WIRTEMBERG.

The duke of. Author of Deux Lettres à la So-
ciété Oeconomique de Berne, Memoirs, 1765.
vol. 1st. His serene highness has very just ideas
concerning agriculture, as the following passage in
his letter will prove.—“It is with reason, gentle-
men, that you regard agriculture, as the thermo-
meter of publick felicity, for if we cast an atten-
tive eye on the many different nations spread upon
the surface of the globe, we shall soon discover that
the happiness of each, is always a consequence of
their application to this art, the first, the most ne-
cessary,

cessary, and consequently the most useful and the most noble of all.

It is in the depths of the earth, that Providence has concealed the rich treasures of the nourishment, and perhaps the virtues of men. She opens her maternal bosom, and discloses that pure, and fruitful source of the pleasures of abundance, and all the charms which accompany a peaceable and happy life, until, through a blind contempt, for a mother so tender, we break forth all armed against her, like revengeful furies. Wars, miseries, vices, follies ! Just chastisements for our pride and ingratitude !”

X I M E N E Z.

Marquis de.

1. Les Lettres ont autant contribué à la Gloire de Louis XIV. qu'il avoit contribué à leur progrès, poeme, 8vo. 1750.
2. Ode sur l'Inoculation, 1756.
3. Theatrical pieces.
4. Lettre à M. Rousseau sur l'effet moral du Theatre.
5. Cesar au Sénat Romain, poeme.

Y A R T.

Best known by his *Idée de la Poésie Angloise*, ou traduction des Meilleurs poetes Anglois, 12mo. 7 vols. 1754.

Y V O N.

His works are wrote in a freer stile than usual for frenchmen—but our surprize ceases when we find that he is a fugitive of Holland.

1. *Liberté de Conscience*, resserrée dans ses bornes legitimes, 12mo. 1753.

2. Le

2. Le Droit naturel, politique et civil, 12mo.
12 vols.

3. Many articles in the Encyclopedia.

ZURLAUBEN.

Baron de.

His best work is, the *Histoire militaire des Suisses au service de France*, 12mo. 8 vols. 1741.

LETTER IX.

SINCE the decline of the Spanish power, France and England have divided the fame of Europe: They have been the first nations in it; and the rival ones in learning, arts, arms, commerce, and general reputation: The *last* age was beyond all doubt that of France, and the *present*, of England. All the circumstances attending the superiority of France, in *her* day, are well known, and will admit of but few remarks, but the present balance between the two kingdoms, is a point of greater curiosity—it is almost untrodden ground. I shall therefore, in this letter, examine the comparative weight of each nation, in every one of the preceding circumstances, and you, I trust, will believe that I shall do it with the utmost impartiality.

EXTENT.

In every article of natural advantage, France exceeds England, beyond all proportion. Her territory is—within a trifle, half as large again * as both the britannick isles, and with that wonderfully beneficial circumstance of lying all as compact together as possible; whereas England and Scotland, are of a most unfavourable shape, stretching out to a vast length, with no proportionable

* In France there are 150,000 square miles, in England, Scotland, and Ireland, only 104,000.

breadth :

breadth : That this is a point of consequence (and more especially as the capital is so far to the south) the English have found more than once : had all their dominions been circular or square, the two rebellions would never have broke out in Scotland : They arose from such small beginnings that a nearer neighbourhood of government would in reputation of power alone have prevented them : There is a material difference between the troops attending government, being within an hundred miles of a conspiracy, or at five, six, or seven times that distance. Indeed the northern parts of Scotland, are almost another world, from the south of England ; little known, and scarce thought of, until the people were most politically drained off, by the last war. Besides this unhappy length ; Ireland is quite disjointed, with a very dangerous navigation between her and England ; these circumstances throw a prodigious weight into the scale of France, which is so admirably compact, that if the king is at the center, an express from him would reach any the furthest part of the kingdom in two days time. The balance of power between the two kingdoms would be a different affair, if the british isles were all united into one of the shape of Borneo.

FERTILITY.

In this respect, likewise, there is no proportion between them : France is beyond all comparison more fruitful than the English dominions. A contrary notion has been common in Europe, which proceeded from the vast exportation of corn from England, but that is no proof, for the same laws encouraging such exportation were never made in France, and the sterility of Scotland and a great part of Ireland, is entirely forgot : take the three

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kingdoms

kingdoms together, I have no doubt but France will be found infinitely the most fertile territory : It should however be remembered, that a distinction ought to be made between fertility and cultivation ; I am now speaking of natural advantages. If we consider the latitude and production of France, this truth must be apparent : She is situated in the happiest climate on the globe, with respect to that due medium between the cold robust vigor of northern constitutions, and the warm feminacy of southern ones : there are more fertile climates, if I may use the expression, but none more healthy. Then as to productions she exceeds the british isles greatly—in wheat there can be no comparison (remember I always speak of all three islands) nor in inferior grain ; besides which articles, she has hemp and flax in a much greater proportion ; and as to oil, wine, and silk, nothing in the English dominions can be produced as a balance ; and all kinds of forest trees bear at least an equality.

SITUATION.

Neither is there any comparison between the two kingdoms in this respect. France, in respect of communication with all other countries, is the best situated kingdom in Europe, she enjoys all the advantages of England, with other additional ones, such as ports in the Mediterranean sea, by which means she has a quick and immediate connection with all the countries around it, some of which are of very great consequence to her trade. She has likewise a vast inland traffick with Swisserland and Germany, by means of the Rhine. But the advantages, of this nature are too apparent not to strike every one : England has nothing to balance it with but her insular situation, which is in many respects a very
great

great blessing, as for instance, it renders it much easier to keep out fatal contagious distempers—and likewise by the want of immediate communication with other nations, preserves the national character with greater purity than most on the continent can, and I am persuaded that this circumstance is of very great importance to any people. All duties, customs, &c. are much easier levied on a sea coast, than on an inland frontier—another point is, the number of sea ports an island must necessarily have, more than any country which is only in part surrounded by sea, and consequently more places from which trade may be carried on. Lastly, an island has many advantages in an *equal* war; (unequal power by sea or land is to be excepted, as that does not depend on insular situation) by which I mean one that is carried on in the modern manner, without an entire conquest being made by either party. On the continent, small detached parties, and armies of a second rate, by an agility of marching, carry terror and destruction into parts far distant from the operations of the grand army; all such kind of destructive war could not be so frequent on an island, for though all the usual consequences of the principal army would there, as well as elsewhere, attend one, yet secondary ones, and very large detachments could not; because there must be a greater uncertainty of recruiting from the other side of the water, and a very large expence of transports, and time, which is ever so precious, would inevitably be wasted by delays, owing to winds; add to all this a very great difficulty of supporting an army after a defeat. On the continent, a skilful general may make a fine retreat, and save a large part of his army after a dreadful loss in battle, but on an island, the case is different, he may retreat to the sea, but there he must be cut in pieces—

for the winds may be against the transports, an hundred accidents may prevent their being at hand, in an extensive war of this nature; the only method to remedy it in the least, would be by securing a very strong port for refuge; but this would cost vast sums of money, and take up a very large garrison to defend; and the very circumstance has already proved useless, in the case of Marshal d'Estrees, and the Duke of Cumberland.

Suppose, likewise, some very strong fortresses are met with, and a siege of great force, and large extent undertaken, convoys of vast consequence, and a multiplicity of other circumstances, would all depend in a great measure on the winds—I know not one siege in history of great consequence which would not, in many cases, have depended on a few days, or a week's delay, of all convoys; but if a storm was to meet the fleet after such a delay—shatter it, and drive it back again—all such enterprizes must then miscarry. I do not pretend to assert that the plan of extensive, and general campaigns, might not be executed with success; I would only display some disadvantages such a war would lye under, that exceeds those on the continent: I know there are other advantages, but none that equal the contraries. Let us but consider how speedily, and with what regularity french armies are supplied with every thing in Germany and Flanders, by means of navigable rivers behind them, communicating with their own country.

It may be answered, perhaps, that the English have carried on successful wars in Flanders and Germany, under many disadvantages I have named: But the parallel is by no means fair, they always had either allies who owned the country behind them, or it belonged to the same sovereign.

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The former was the case in 1702, and 1741, the latter in 1759; and this circumstance gave much the same advantages as the french enjoyed, only at ten times the expence—however, supplies were regular, not from England, but from the back country. The descents of the Swedes in Germany, have always been made with these advantages. And the Russians, in the late war, drew the same from Poland, and Prussia, which were in their hands. The English, in Spain, in the succession war, likewise enjoyed them by means of Portugal, and the archduke's party, spread throughout all Spain. The descents of the French in Scotland, are too insignificant to quote; but all the advantages gained were by the natives, not the foreigners.

On the contrary, wherever these advantages of immediate, exactly regular, and constant communication with home, have been wanting, ill success, as precisely, has been the consequence. The French, in all the inundations of men, with which they have overflowed Italy, have been wanting in this point, owing to the strength and almost impassibleness of Savoy and Piedmont; and they have ever been driven out again with great loss, merely on that account: this instance is remarkable, for the country joins even to their own, and they have frequently had a party in it; which proves that no favourable circumstances will make amends for the want of this necessary one. The descents of the English on France and Spain, (except the succession war of the latter) considered in any light but mere burning parties, are always, for this reason, futile and trivial.

If we reflect the least on the nature of a campaign, the wonder would be greater if it was not so. For the infinite disadvantages, under which a general lies, who carries on a war in an enemies country, of which he is totally unacquainted—of

whose language himself, possibly, and nine-tenths of his army, know not a syllable—in which every peasant is a determined enemy, and a constant spy of his adversary; throw the contraries of all these circumstances into the scale of the latter, and then will it not appear of what infinite consequence it is to have a constant and uninterrupted communication with his own country, a more regular one than it is possible it should be by sea! For so involved in difficulties of all kinds, (and they would be immense, if the defending party was to avoid a battle, and employ themselves in continually harassing him, cutting off his supplies, and convoys, and burning and laying waste all the country through which they retreated, disputing sharply the natural posts, but without ever suffering themselves to be forced to fight) so perplexed, I say, he he would find employment enough, without having the vexation of being ill supplied from home, or an interrupted communication: If the winds were constantly fair, he might prove successful from being vigorously supported, and regularly supplied; but if they were contrary, or stormy, he might presently be reduced to a dreadful situation, and a battle then lost would be ruin itself; and the probability of losing an engagement would be great—for every one of the circumstances which operated so strongly against him, would have a direct contrary effect with his enemies; every moment an action was delayed, they would grow stronger, and he perpetually weaker.

You will doubtless remark, that hitherto I have said not a syllable of a naval force acting against the invaders—that circumstance is no peculiar attendant on the insular situation, and therefore I omitted it; but it will certainly be very palpable to you, that if the islanders possess any, (though not superior to the invaders, or even not equal)

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all the untoward circumstances and combination of chances, will receive a great increase, for in such a case fleets of men of war must be always ready to sail with the transports of every kind, and let me add, *from the same ports*, which points will inevitably cause other delays, and throw numerous obstacles in the way of an active conduct of such a war.—From these several cases, it must be owned, that an island is a highly beneficial situation: I have already spoke of that of France, in all other respects, let us now enquire into that of self defence.

On the continent, this is generally speaking pretty equal, as to situation; the king of Sardinia's dominions, on the side of France, is an exception, but there are very few such—and therefore the degree of safety lies in the degree of a nation's power; and as to France, she is strong enough never to have any fears from her neighbours, unless by an ambitious and unjust conduct she spirits them up to form alliances against her—None can ever think of attacking her with any advantage separately, and no formidable alliance can be formed against her, without preceding reasons arising from herself: And if we consider past events, the truth of these remarks will be apparent: while she was governed by the spirit of insolence itself, and the most formidable alliances made against her, notwithstanding her ill success, France was untouched; as free from all the immediate horrors of war, after years of trouble, as any island upon the globe could be. I can scarcely allow the ill managed expedition against Toulon, or Prince Charles's crossing the Rhine, even to be exceptions.

If a neighbour on the continent, however, should become extremely powerful, out of all proportion to her own (an event by the bye, *infinitely* improbable)

bable) she might then, it will be said, be attacked with greater ease than England—This I allow, and I must remark that this is the *only case*, considering the power of the two kingdoms, in which the superiority of England's insular situation appears; and this single case, is almost a visionary one.—In the state Europe has been in since the decline of Spain, and in the state in which she is likely to continue, England has no reason to expect to see her counties the seat of war; but France has as little to expect it in her provinces. The whole point of *situation, relative to war*, may therefore be reduced to this. England, as a power *naturally* inferior to France *, has, from her insular situation, great advantages (naval power out of the question) in case of invasions from France.—France from her *power* and situation, enjoys equal advantages; in repelling the attacks of her continental neighbours: But if *mere situation* is considered, and the number of people in both kingdoms supposed the same, then the insular situation of England is more advantageous against France, than the situation of France is against her continental neighbours.

POPULOUSNESS.

I think there can be no doubt, but this is the point which constitutes the real power of any nation; provided the numbers of people bear a due proportion to the number of acres of soil, and that they are numerous enough to be secure of independancy. These points are self evident; but nothing is more dubious and uncertain, than the ideas of the best politicians concerning them. I know of no author that has discovered the mean number of acres for each person, in exact proportion to the

* Less numerous in people.

nature of the soil, and its products ; nor when that point is settled, how many people a nation should consist of, to be secure according to the perfection of the art of war in modern times, and according to all the variety of means of communication from one part of a country to another, which every one enjoys now, superior to six or seven hundred years ago. Instances are very rare ; the Italian and German sovereignties, are none of them such ; the only three instances I know of, are the Dutch, the Swiss, and Denmark—to which some would add Portugal, but I question whether justly. The two republicks are inferior in size and number of people, to several sovereignties in Italy and Germany, but none can ever be half so secure from being conquered, or annexed by treaties of peace to any other powers ; which has been often the case, with very considerable territories in both those countries. The Dutch and Swiss are distinct from their neighbours, are no parts of one whole—have a language of their own, and a national character which is peculiarly different from their neighbours. Now in Germany and Italy, it is totally different ; all Italy is of one religion, one language, and one general character, with but slight variations ; there is no great difference therefore to the generality of the inhabitants, under what sovereign they are : or at least no other difference than the reputation of the day, in respect of lenity and severity. Think of the changes of the Milanese, the dutchies, Tuscany, and the Sicilies, sovereignties which are kept distinct from their neighbours meerly by the negotiations of superior powers. It is nearly the same in Germany ; no one will assert that such transfers of provinces, and considerable ones too, have not been frequent there, and in future, infinitely more probable than with the other powers I named. The king of Denmark has very
few

few subjects, and those in no proportion to the soil, but national character and language, will secure his independancy. I cannot allow Portugal to come into the list; there is scarce any difference in the important point of national character, and the language is but another name for bad Spanish: add to all this, the situation is the most striking instance in all the globe, of a territory being a distinct sovereignty, contrary to the very nature of it. I consider the independancy of Portugal, as very equivocal, in respect to future ages.—From all these circumstances, it is clear that a people much less numerous than commonly imagined may be entirely secure of independancy, if they have a peculiar national character and language. I have no doubt but any one of the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, Candia, or Cyprus, entirely peopled with Tartars, Russians, Chinese, Norwegians, or in short, a people totally different from all others, with a language of their own, would preserve their independancy, in spite of the most unfavourable events that are within probability. Corsica, without those advantages entire, will prove it. But to return from this digression.—

The best authorities I have been able to procure concerning the number of people in France, differ greatly; from thirteen millions to twenty. In such cases the medium is generally found to be nearest the truth. I shall therefore suppose them to be sixteen and an half. That number on an hundred and fifty thousand square miles, is in the proportion of one hundred and ten persons to each; and as a square mile contains six hundred and forty acres, it amounts nearly to five acres, and three quarters, to each person.

The best accounts that can be procured make the number of people in the three British islands, to amount to ten millions; the number of square miles

miles is 104,000, or ninety-six persons to each, which is nearly six acres, and three quarters to each.

France is therefore by much the most populous of the two, and if we consider the difference of fertility, this superiority will not surprize us, notwithstanding the want of liberty, celibacy of the clergy, and inferiority of trade. For that point of fertility is prodigiously on her side.

I cannot help observing here, that this article of populousness, is the grand affair of all others; I know not what consequences we are to wish for, from a perfect culture of the land, from numerous manufactures, and from an enlarged commerce, unless it be a great increase of people, and there can be little doubt but such really are the effects of them, from which we learn, that if England was not in a superior possession of those great advantages, there would be a yet greater disproportion between her populousness, and that of France.

Liberty, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, are supposed to be such powerful causes of population, that I have no doubt but this inferiority falls on the side where it would not generally be expected: Yet so it is; and it proves that all human improvement does not equal natural causes when they are left to themselves; which in the case of France, indeed they have not been, for population in that country has met with some cruel strokes.

In respect to an equal division of the people, France has likewise the advantage greatly: A prodigious part of Scotland is entirely barren (*reputed so*) whereas in France, the barren tracks are scattered about, and surrounded by fertile ones: A difference very material; for it of course spreads the people pretty equally, and the immediate neigh-

neighbourhood of cultivated lands, has a mighty effect on the minds of the owner of bad soils; the different consequences of culture and no culture are then so striking, that in a course of time it gradually improves the bad soils: But when such vast ranges of country are desolate and barren, like great parts of Scotland, a general backwardness to improve must prevail amongst the few inhabitants, even when natural advantages offer themselves in the midst of such a country, there is not strength or spirit nearly sufficient to turn them to utility and profit.

C A P I T A L S.

There are many political writers who insist with great earnestness, on the utility of very great cities, and who speak with a degree of rapture on London and Paris: but not to give too hastily into such an opinion, I cannot help doubting the fact being as they represent it, but on the contrary must suppose, that there ought to be a proportion between the head and the rest of the members of the body politic, as well as in the human frame: It may be difficult to point out this proportion precisely, but the reality of its existence, is nevertheless certain.

A very large capital is of bad consequences, in obstructing the people being equally dispersed—in occasioning vast sums of money to be spent, less to the public benefit than they inevitably would be (supposing the nation equally rich) if the inhabitants were more scattered about—and of very remarkable ill effects, in giving a prodigious importance to one particular spot of territory, not more defensible than other parts; nor very likely so much so: These circumstances are all of importance, and deserve to be well considered, before we pronounce

nounce so readily in favour of overgrown metropolises.

Without giving into all the common declamations against luxury, we may be certain that the sums of private money, expended, or rather wasted, in the capital, *without giving employment to useful hands*, are vastly greater than they would be in the smaller towns, or in the country. There ought to be more clear distinctions made, of the different natures of luxury, than our political writings at present contain. If the inhabitants of any country are prodigal, and infinitely expensive in fine cloths—laces, &c. &c. which are their own products, and wrought by their own people, their luxury, if it is so called, will prove an advantage to their country—but, on the contrary, if they spend large sums in foreign manufactures, or in their own, if wrought from foreign materials, such luxury is very pernicious—the first evidently so to all mankind; the second, likewise, ought to be very clear, (although not of equal bad consequence) as it draws their people from manufacturing their own products. Now, to any unprejudiced person, I am certain it must appear a determined fact, that the latter species of luxury takes place, much more in very large cities, than in smaller ones, and infinitely more than in the country—that is, the inhabitant of the former spends more money unprofitably to the public, than the inhabitant of the latter—both their fortunes supposed equal.

A modern author of very great reputation, takes in this case the opposite side of the question. I shall quote the passage:—“It is certain that the number of people in London, is about five times as great, as at the death of Queen Elizabeth; and though it cannot be supposed, that the number of people in this island hath increased in the same proportion, yet it is certain that they have very
much

much increased, as is apparent from the growth of other great cities, the swelling of small villages into large towns, and the raising on our coasts of many new sea ports. It may indeed be objected, that if people remove out of the country, into great towns, this augments the number of their inhabitants, but not that of the nation; but then the fact must be proved, which is a thing impossible; for such as dwell in great towns, consume a larger quantity of provisions, and all other necessities, than such as live scattered up and down the country; they must consequently be supplied with these, and therefore the growth of towns must increase the number of people in the country about them. Thus the farther we trace this matter, the clearer, and the more certain it appears, and therefore what is deduced from it cannot be rationally called in question." *

This ingenious gentleman says, *but then the fact must be proved, which is a thing impossible*, which is precisely the answer to his own argument, how will he prove, that the vast growth of London is not owing to the people leaving the country and flocking to it? So far from it, that nothing can be clearer than the very contrary; for I much question, if there is a large village in England, that does not, in a short space of time, afford the capital one of its young men or women, who have all a great idea of the riches of London, and think that six times the wages are to be had there, as in the country; and the smaller towns constantly lose numbers in the same way, add to this the country gentlemen's residing the winters in London, with their families, till many live there entirely. These circumstances are common to both London and

* Present State of Europe, p. 508.

Paris, but by far most so to the former, for there are not half the conveniencies for the poor people to go to Paris, from the provinces, as from the counties to London—they may travel seventy miles in England, fare and expences included, for seven shillings, regular carriages move with such expedition, whereas there are not three in France, that move more than an ordinary pace—the difference of which is prodigious. Cross roads should all be good, those to the capital as bad as possible: The very reverse of this is the case.

It is likewise asserted in the above passage, that the consumption of necessaries is greater in the capital, than the country, and thereby the numbers in the latter increased. I have no conception, the fact is true: I think I have already proved, that the *detrimental* consumption is greater—but that that of necessaries is the same, is very paradoxical. If a family possessed of a certain income, resides on their estate, whether it be in France or England, I am persuaded there is not one article of their necessary consumption, less than it would be at Paris or London: Provisions are in quantity superior, for there is ever a greater *plenty* in their country houses, than their town ones, more poor people eat in their kitchens, and with very good reason, for they are known, which is the case with scarce any in town, more servants are infallibly kept—all the superfluous showy ones of the capital, with others by far more valuable to the kingdom, those whose business is without doors; improvements are carried on in the lands, or park, adjoining the house, in a greater degree than when half the year is spent at London, and likewise for a good reason, the owners can much better afford it; all these points, and many others, occasion a larger family than any person of the same fortune keeps in town. It may be observed indeed, *that*
there

*there are multitudes employed in the carriages, which regularly communicate with London and Paris, which is true; but then, if all the towns of France and England, received their shares of the inhabitants of these two cities—carriages in other parts would increase—but if they were to drop at once, it would be of ten times the advantage to the kingdoms respectively, for there is infinitely more mischief results from the multiplicity of horses they employ, than advantage in the number of men; this is a fact, but it would be too tedious to discuss it at present. In what articles, therefore, this superiority of consumption consists, I cannot devise—those of food—raiment; their own manufactures, that is—building—coaches, &c. *—All kinds of furniture, † &c. &c. &c. would be by far more considerable in the country, than in the capital city; and if we consider every trade and business whatever, employed by a family, rich enough to reside in the capital, except those of *detrimental luxury*, we shall find more employed by those who live in the country, than by those who reside in the capital, fortunes equal.*

But one great and material point remains. Which is most favourable to population! To call great cities the graves of the human species, would by some be thought to favour of prejudice: but to assert that the increase of a million of people, scattered about the country, is infinitely greater than of the same number cooped up in a city, is to

* This article would increase in small towns, in proportion to the decrease of the capitals, I mean showy ones, others would in the country.

† Would be six times as great; compare the size of houses in the country, with those in the capitals.

advance a fact acknowledged by all Europe—and mathematically demonstrable: And this fact is of such great importance, as more than to balance all the advantages which the above quotation gives to great cities; if such advantages are merely ideal, What must be the case then?

The last head under which I shall consider the consequences of such great capital cities, is that of danger from an enemy. In cases of foreign invasions, no particular spot in a country ought to be of such vast importance, as to render the safety of it, a point of more than commonly national concern: This maxim is clearly drawn from the instances of which I am speaking. If an enemy was to break into France, at the head of a victorious army, what object of more than common importance could he have in view, by securing which, the war would be ended at one stroke, but Paris? Let an army march into that city.—I will not say he would immediately have *carte blanche* offered him; but I am clear, that a peace must be made with him immediately, or he would soon pay himself the expences of the war, for by one stroke he gets possession of a five and twentieth part of the french subjects—and those infinitely the richest.

Such an event at London would be six times as decisive; for he would immediately command a tenth of the british subjects, at the same time, the chief part of the vast trade of England, and an infinite proportion of the riches of the kingdom, a necessary consequence of the vast fabrick of banks, funds, and credit, which have their residence all at London. Indeed the train of consequences which would immediately follow, is almost inconceivable. twenty years of otherwise successful war, would not be attended with such decisive advantages.

The wretched politicks therefore, of suffering the most important concerns of a great kingdom,

almost its very being and independance to hang upon such a point, must be extremely obvious: and displays in the strongest manner, the most pernicious effects, which during any war, a nation is liable to, whose capital is so out of proportion to the body of the people at large. This is the reason that the dread of a french invasion was always so great in England; had London been no larger than Bristol, and a mere place of trade—had the seat of the legislature—government—law—and all publick offices, been in the center of the kingdom, and well executed laws prevented such place from growing too large, the English would not have such cogent reasons to fear, as they have sometimes done in so apparently pusillanimous a manner, the landing of a foreign enemy. Rash assertions, that bear too much the face of paradoxes, I am not fond of, but I believe, on cool consideration, I should not be thought to hazard one, was I to assert, that an enemies marching into either Paris or London—driving the inhabitants out, and burning them to the ground, would not in the end prove a misfortune, either to France or England.—From all that can be ventured on this subject of capital cities, the following conclusion, I apprehend, just and decisive: *That the country, in this respect, labours under the greatest misfortune, whose capital is the most populous.*

France therefore, in this point of comparison, has vastly the superiority: The number of her inhabitants is sixteen millions, and an half, and her capital contains about six hundred and fifty thousand, whereas the capital of the English dominions has a million of inhabitants, when the whole number of subjects in the three islands, do not exceed ten millions. Or, in other words, Paris contains one *twenty fifth* of the whole, and London one *tenth*. This great inferiority of England, is one reason of her

her not coming nearer to France in the article of populousness.

GOVERNMENT.

The form of government, in these respective kingdoms, is well known: But the influence of it, in several cases, is a subject worthy of a little consideration. In respect of the happiness of the people, there can be no comparison, but in that of security—power—wars—domestic revolutions, &c. &c. they will admit a parallel.

The chance of future military events, proving destructive of either nation, is various: A people that amount to sixteen millions, are, in general, to be reckoned more secure, than another only of ten, but then multitudes of other circumstances have a strong influence, and particularly that of government—an arbitrary one, cannot in the nature of things, be so secure as a free one, which is established on the laws of the land, because in many situations, its subjects may be disaffected at the same time, that attacks are made from abroad; and as an arbitrary power in one person, must be a constant trespass on the rights of the people, the chance of such disaffection is greater under it, than under free governments: and there must be a strange perversity in human nature, if the armies of a tyrant, or even an arbitrary king, will fight as bravely in defence of his power, as free men will for their own liberty.

On the contrary, the despotic Prince commands infinitely greater apparent power, or, in other words, more numerous armies, and greater revenues than any one who reigns over a free people of the same number—supposing each kingdom equally rich: We must not draw comparisons between

one nation at her zenith, and another in her decline—but compare, for instance, France in the last age, with England in the present, striking the proportion of populousness. If we draw a fair comparison, arbitrary power will always be found to command the greatest resources of men and money.

In a free country the government cannot, in many conjunctures, make use of the real power of the nation—for no free people can be free from factions—if they were so, they would not long preserve their freedom; and it is the nature of faction to oppose every thing but private interests, by which means the government is in some measure shackled, and precious opportunities are lost, which in no affairs of importance, are ever to be recalled.

Thus freedom itself, that greatest of all human blessings, may be of bad consequence to its possessors, in some peculiar situations; and in this respect, perhaps, balances the want of liberty in other countries. But when there is such an harmony between the government and the subject, as to prevent the ill effects of faction, and the nation, and its king, are equally vigorous in any measure of defence, a free people in such situation will defend themselves with more success than those who live under an arbitrary monarch: indeed they have in this case a wonderful superiority; they have a cause that makes them more than men. In the last, and present age, great points have been effected, and vast *sudden* efforts made by means of very large standing armies: in this respect the arbitrary government has vastly the advantage, but such ambitious strokes, any people are better without:—even at the beginning of a regular war, a free people are extremely languid in their operations—armies are to be raised and disciplined, when

when their enemies have taken the field; and the war is necessarily protracted the longer; here the arbitrary government has likewise the advantage.

In respect to the stability of the respective governments, it must certainly strike every one, that infinitely more nations have lost their liberty, than regained it; the probabilities are all against them: In this case therefore, scarce any comparison can be drawn. And as to the families which at present possess the thrones, continuing in them, I think there is an exact equality.

Both governments, therefore, have advantages peculiar to themselves—some important ones lie on the side of France, but when weighed, *on the whole*, with those of England, they kick the beam.

L A W S.

There is a very great fault in the criminal laws of both France and England: those of the first are too severe, and those of the latter too merciful. In France robbery is punished with breaking on the wheel; murder can have nothing farther: In England robbery is punished with hanging, and murder no more; the same punishment being inflicted on crimes so very disproportioned, is a monstrous enormity: The very name of punishment, contains an idea of proportion; to punish, therefore, the criminal who robs me of a few shillings, urged, perhaps, by necessity, and the villain that puts me to a death of torture, in the same manner, is a scandal upon the name of law, and a standing reproach on those of France and England.

As to the laws concerning property, I know not which are worst—I would be understood to mean, *as* they are executed, (the meer intention of laws being good, is a farce, if they do not execute

themselves, which all goods ones do in civilized countries.) Those of France are evaded, and warped by the corruption and partiality of the judges—and those of England are so infinitely expensive, in the execution, that there is scarce a trespass to be made, but a man had better submit to it, than apply to the law for justice. The meaning of the law itself may be clear enough, but that is of no consequence, while the execution is so perplexed and costly.

The fault of the French laws is radical in the nature of the government, and, therefore, one cannot be surprized at its not being remedied; but in England, where the law is confessedly the only authority which binds any of the people, and to which the king himself is equally subject, with the meanest of them, it is amazing that such gross and detestable abuses should be suffered, especially when an act of parliament of six lines would completely remedy it——“No law suit of any kind whatever, shall last longer than a year:” this would put a stop to the enormous expence at once; at the same time that it eased the people of the tedious and ruinous uncertainties of long suits. Some few inconveniences might follow, but nothing to those which the English groan under at present.

AGRICULTURE.

I know not a more curious disquisition than the enquiry, In what degree can agriculture be alone depended upon, for the subsistence, entire consumption of all kinds, and defence of any people? If a nation, from the culture of the soil, could be enabled to subsist entirely, without degenerating into barbarians, or giving up the comforts and conveniencies of modern life, I am very much inclined to think such a nation, under a free govern-

government, would be completely powerful and happy: And under an arbitrary one, would be greatly superior to those who depend on trade *alone*. Instances will best explain my meaning.

It is well known, that in England agriculture is carried to as great perfection, as in any country of Europe: the English, by a remarkably wise conduct, gave immense encouragement to it, by a bounty on the exportation of corn, which immediately gave a spirit of cultivation unknown before, and opened a prodigiously beneficial commerce with her neighbours. The manufacture of wool and leather, in that country, is likewise very considerable, and yields a vast export; these articles depend immediately upon agriculture; and (without taking notice of a multitude of inferior manufactures) are a very important source of riches to the English. They depend entirely upon their own soil, employ great numbers of the most useful hands a state can boast, and in a word, constitute the chief pillar of their riches, their power, and their flourishing condition. Now the question is, whether that nation would have acted prudently, to have been satisfied with the commerce depending on those articles, and have restrained the rest? I suppose them burthened with no debt—a people when that is the case cannot have a choice.

Agriculture being the only *sure* dependance of any people, those who depend most on it are in the most certain road. It ought therefore to be the policy of wise states, not only to give encouragement to husbandry, but to place their dependance in it, by acting in such a manner, that their safety or happiness may not be endangered by the loss of any thing else. For instance, how greatly is agriculture encouraged in England, and yet the dependance of the English, is no otherwise on it,

than as one branch of a prodigious commerce; all which commerce is necessary, as their best writers tell us, to support their *credit*, and their credit as necessary to support themselves: This chain of dependance, so contrary to the interest of any country, is all owing to that pernicious practice of running in debt.

A dependance upon commerce at large, without distinction, never was, nor ever can be, in any degree comparable to that upon cultivation: it is by far more fluctuating, more open to rivalry of neighbours, and even liable to almost total destruction: whereas the very contrary is the case with agriculture; and in respect to the trade immediately proceeding from it, even that, of all commerce whatever, is the most secure; for the sale of absolute necessities will ever be more sure than that of superfluities.

The case is different with France; not owing to a superiority of political conduct, but the nature of her government: Her credit has been ruined more than once, and she has proved to all the world, that she can do without it, even in unsuccessful times; her dependance on trade is therefore but secondary, for an *increase* of wealth and revenue, as *desirable* acquisitions, but not as *absolutely necessary* ones. Those proceeding from agriculture she is sure of, and has found their importance when foreign commerce and credit were no more: on the foundations of agriculture she combated the most powerful enemy she has in the world, and commanded an advantageous peace. Will that of England ever do the same for her country when her credit and commerce are ruined? If it will not,—why not? Because her principal dependance was not placed in it. Can we wonder that it should not perform what the English themselves do not expect from

it! Agriculture is therefore attended with greater consequences in France than in England.

In respect to the immediate practice of the two kingdoms, there is great reason to suppose husbandry much more flourishing in England than in France; because the French do not always totally supply themselves, whereas that is *seldom* the case in England, and the English export a quantity of some consideration in itself, but of infinite importance in its *effects*: But then it is a fact that the French eat a vastly greater quantity of bread than the English: It is impossible to know the difference precisely, but it may very easily amount to as much as the exportation of the English, and their own importation; and if it does, the land yields as much in France as in England; which is very surprising, and totally contrary to all received opinions. We ought not to forget that there is one acre in six, and three quarters difference in populousness, which must, in the nature of things, give a superiority (in that respect) in cultivation; and we likewise should remember, that the commonly received opinions concerning the agriculture of both countries may be founded on appearances, which may be true, but the conclusions false: England exports large quantities of corn, and her farmers and labourers are warm, comfortable—and many of them rich—it is therefore concluded, that agriculture is more perfect in England, than in France, where those advantages are wanting; and this consequence is drawn, I confess, with great appearance of reason; but yet it may be delusive: France may notwithstanding grow as much corn in proportion as England, and the circumstances I mentioned above seem to prove it; but then it is done without making any show, or noise in the world: An hundred quarters of wheat exported from England makes more impression on her neigh-

neighbours than the idea of ten thousand eat at home. But all I advance on this subject can be little more than conjecture; its curiousness and importance should bring to light better authorities, than we have at present.

From the foregoing circumstances we have some reason to think, that the land in France equals that of the English islands in produce—but if we understand by the word Agriculture, any thing concerning the hands employed in it, then England is greatly superior.

MANUFACTURES.

I shall make a few remarks on the *general œconomy* of manufactures and their *immediate produce*, in both France and England: This division is necessary, for the one part may be extremely good, and the other equally bad. France, before she allowed an exportation of corn gave a lively instance of it; for the celebrated Colbert's regulations rendered manufactures wonderfully flourishing, and made them yield an immense profit, but then the general œconomy was bad, and of a fatal tendency, because agriculture was cramped to favour them.

At present the case is different, but on which side the balance lies, whether with France or England, is a matter very difficult to determine. The point of œconomy or management, I think, is in favour of France; and, for these reasons, she now harmonizes agriculture and manufactures by encouraging the exportation of corn—she employs herself principally (almost entirely) in manufacturing her own products—and that in a much greater degree than England; she consumes none but her own manufactures, whereas the rage of fashion in England almost always turns on foreign ones. Her police laws, for the direct government
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of the manufactures, are beyond all comparison better than those of England, and executed in a speedy summary manner, without expence or delay; the very contrary of which is the case with England.

As to the amount of the produce, we should not so much consider the consumption, because of the difference of the number of the people in the two kingdoms, but the export: That nation that exports to the greatest amount of their manufactures, *wrought from their products*, may be said *produce* the most in this respect; and where the balance lies in this point is very difficult to determine: For the English have a very large export to North America and Portugal, and the French a prodigious one to Spain, the Levant, Germany, Holland, and all Spanish America—We should not forget that a very considerable amount of what the English export, are manufactures wrought from foreign products, which, with both nations are thrown out of the question, for innumerable reasons too long to insert here. But then, on the contrary, the general aggregate of English trade is three times as great as that of France, and every article must take off some of her manufactures however few; therefore I must leave this point doubtful—for the more it is considered, the more difficult it will be found to determine absolutely upon it.

COMMERCE.

In this respect England claims a great superiority: there can be no comparison between the foreign trade of the English and the French. But we are not from thence to conclude, that the commerce of the latter is not very considerable: I have already treated particularly of it, and must now add, that in the most valuable article of trade

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now in the world—that of sugar, whether considered in respect of returns in cash—consumption of manufactures, dependancy of the colonies that produce it, &c. &c. the French are more than trebly superior to the English: Nor should those who affect to treat the trade of France with disdain, on comparison with that of England, forget, that in the Levant, likewise, she has undermined the English, and now enjoys the superiority: Nor is there any comparison between the two nations in their commerce with the vast dominions of the Spaniards; the superiority of France is very clear, and especially when we consider that she takes neither wine, silk, fruit, nor many other articles which the English import from Spain; it must, however, be confessed, that this superiority is not of any very long standing; but there is no doubt that it will encrease. On the contrary, in fisheries, corn, the East Indian trade, and the general amount of that of Colonies, England is vastly superior.—In the African, equal. But it is the trade with her colonies at large which gives her the superiority on the whole, and if she is not more political in her management of them, especially in the article of preventing their setting up manufactures, which interfere with those of the mother country, her colonies will not long be of any consequence to her. And had France expended as much money about Louisiana, as she did to no purpose on Canada, she might easily have carried the palm of colonies from England; instead of building her forts, and encroaching on the English colonies to the north, which was attacking the bull by the horns to gain a country scarce worth taking, and raising an immediate flame amongst charter governments, she should have bent all her efforts to the south, against the weakest of her enemies settlements, but the most valuable in productions, contrary to those
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of Europe—and likewise, where the *limits* were not half so well known as to the north, and where the governments were royal, in which encroachments might have been concealed by English ministry, to avoid a war—Such a plan would have presently given France the possession of the best countries belonging to England in North America, and in consequence, a great superiority of commerce.

GENERAL WEALTH.

The generality of politicians will consider this article as the test of every other: but in such an opinion there is a great delusion: A multiplicity of circumstances are to be considered before such a conclusion is to be adopted at large: the enquiry would be extremely curious, but it is not nearly enough connected with my present subject to introduce it here.

The general wealth of a kingdom, may be divided into three sorts,

1. The rental.
2. The perishable personal estates.
3. The valuable ditto.
4. The current coin.

As to the rental, it is rather difficult to come at the truth in it, in either kingdom: Some very sensible political authors, however, will furnish me with some data, from which, by analogy, I may possibly arrive pretty near it. We are told by very good authority, that the rental of England and Wales amounts to about twenty millions sterling, the number of people, six millions and an half.

I apprehend there is great reason to suppose a proportion generally holds between the number of people and the rental, in all countries whose lands nearly, or more than feeds the inhabitants—that is,
scarce

scarce any territory except Holland should be excepted—but any such exceptions have nothing to do with the present case: I shall, therefore, suppose the rental of Scotland and Ireland to hold a proportion, according to the number of their inhabitants, to that of England; and I am confident there can be no strong objections to this supposition, for every circumstance in which England may claim a superiority will be found to affect the number of people as much as they possibly can the rental, and probably more, and as the proportion is fixed to the number of people, no great deviations can be made from the fact. Scotland contains one million and an half of souls, it is rental therefore upwards of four millions six hundred thousand pounds. Ireland contains two millions, and its rental, consequently, upwards of six millions one hundred thousand pounds. The whole rental, therefore, of the English dominions may be called thirty two millions sterling.

I shall make no scruple of supposing the rental of France to bear the same proportion, or £. 52, 800,000. Some may be of contrary opinion, but I should apprehend they do not consider the difference of populousness on a given number of acres, which is a reason for thinking it yet more considerable; and why the rentals in that kingdom should not be in this proportion I know not, but many reasons might be produced to prove they must exceed it. And M. de Boulainvilliers, one of the best politicians in France, rates it at £. 87, 500,000, which is not perhaps above the mark. Publick funds and money jobbing (of which I shall presently speak) bear no proportion in the two kingdoms, vast sums of money are by their means diverted from the improvement of the soil—whereas in France, if the owner of an estate has money besides, he has no use to put it to but
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improving his land with it—but supposing, in this respect, such necessity is not so strong as I have expressed it, yet the profit which attends stock-jobbing, and the regular interest paid in the funds, must in the nature of things be hurtful to the land, and I should add, to trade likewise. Nor ought we to forget, that by the *Detail de la France*, a book of great credit, it appears, the rental of the kingdom, before the annexed and conquered frontier provinces were added to it, amounted to £. 61,250,000, according to the present money of France. In this article, therefore, of rental, the superiority is greatly on the side of France.

In respect to perishable personal estates, the superiority must inevitably be greatly in favour of France; so much more numerous a people, possessing considerable a trade, and such vast manufactures, and superior rental of above twenty millions sterling, are circumstances which must be our guides in this article; nor ought we to forget that the taste for magnificent furniture, which is so considerable a point in this article, is much more indulged by the great in France than in England.

As to valuable personals, or in other words, plate and jewels, they have been calculated by more than one author. It is asserted by M. de Voltaire (whose authority every day gains ground in Europe, after being considered for some time as a writer of scarce any) that they at present amount to the value of £. 52,500,000, or twelve hundred millions of livres. Whereas the most judicious English writers do not compute this article in England and Scotland, at more than twenty millions sterling, some at not so much: the proportion of Ireland, would be four millions, but that proportion will by no means do in this case, for the richest

est of the Irish nation spend a considerable part of their lives in England—many reside there entirely, which circumstances must oblige us to throw off half the sum at least: The whole of this article in the British dominions will therefore amount to twenty two millions. France is therefore, not only by far the richest of the two nations, in this respect, but likewise vastly so in proportion to the number of the people, for England to be equal to France in that manner, ought to possess near thirty three millions: so there is a balance in proportion against her of eleven millions—and if the nations are taken at large, of thirty millions and an half. The reason of this vast difference will be seen, when I come to compare the publick credit of the two kingdoms.

Lastly, as to the current coin, M. de Voltaire informs us, that this likewise amounts in France, to £. 52,500,000. That of the British dominions, it is well known, does not amount £. 20,000,000; which comparison, also, leaves to the former kingdom a prodigious superiority: the reason will be seen by and by.

France we therefore find in the article of general wealth is by much the richest; the truth of this maxim with me I own is very clear; and yet I much question whether all will acknowledge it; however, if any new or better authorities come to light we may be better able to form more exact judgments.

PUBLICK CREDIT.

This article is alone an explanation of a thousand others. I have showed, I think, pretty clearly, that in point of natural wealth of every kind France is by far the richer of the two kingdoms; how
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comes it then that she is found so infinitely inferior to England? the riches of the latter kingdom are able to raise up armies out of stone—she has nothing to do but to stamp with her foot, and Pompey's legions spring up at her command. The gold and silver of France is above twice as much as that of England, and yet one country seems to be in want of common wealth, and the other disgorges its guineas all over Europe—All, all is publick credit, and paper—the most amazing structure, the wit of man ever erected! The temple of Solomon has been boasted of long in the world, and its costing some forty or fifty millions sterling; a child's play thing! to the architecture of the English—they have expended three times as much on an edifice, and hung it in the air!—The most ethereal building surely, that ever *wav'd* to the wind of heaven!—But to come to the comparison.

England, beyond all doubt, is arrived at immense power, which has been gradually increasing since the revolution. It was in the reign of King William that the publick debts of that nation began, and by means of commanding at a moment's call, whatever sums the publick service required, she was enabled to carry on an almost perpetual war, from 1688 to 1714, at a prodigious expence, and without burthening the subject. By this means she broke the power of France, and secured to herself the greatest share of it, by means of trade.

The duke of Orleans, by means of the Mississippi scheme, paid two hundred millions sterling of the publick debts of France, with waste paper, and thereby laid a fresh foundation for future power. France recruited her losses wonderfully, and became again the terror of England—if war

breaks out, and the debt of the English prodigiously increased. This war is presently succeeded by another, which again increases it ten fold, and leaves it at the peace, at the monstrous amount of One hundred and forty millions sterling.

The case has been very different with France; she saw the prodigious efforts which England made by means of funding, and aimed at the doing the same—but running in debt, has sat very awkwardly on the French, for they pursued no plan consistently, they gave monstrous interest for money, and at last stopt payment on a part of their funds, at the same time showing what tenderness they could for their credit, and afterwards borrowing again at a yet higher interest. Thus the French have lost their credit, without gaining by the loss: Had they by the most regular punctuality lull'd all Europe into an opinion of their funds, until they had encreased them as much as their utmost possibility would bear, and then spunged the whole into mere life annuities to the then possessors alone, they would have added infinitely to the strength and power of the state, and lost very little more of their credit than they have done without such a conduct—There is nothing so pernicious to a ministry, and even to a kingdom at large, if under an arbitrary government, as their being knaves by halves. France, by breaking her credit in part—has much worse than lost the whole, for she is still involved in burthensome debts, bearing an enormous interest, without future hopes of encreasing them at a lower interest: So situated, how much better would she have been off, had she made one general crush!

It is impossible publick credit should be of a free vigorous growth, under an arbitrary government—and therefore such a precariousness must attend

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it, that it never can run up to any thing like the height of that of England; add to this also the want of all paper specie, and we shall at once see the reason why the current coin, and the plate, and jewels of France, are so out of proportion to those of England.

The paper specie of the latter is not current abroad, though it is at home, consequently all subsidies, and military expences, drain the kingdom of its cash; and leave paper behind for its domestic business—and as stock jobbing is so wonderfully profitable to those who have ready money, no great stocks of plate or jewels are kept in private hands; but in France the thing is different, if they did not possess those valuables, they could not turn the money to ready advantage, which is a vastly greater inducement to keeping them, than can exist in England.

The paper currency alone, of the latter, amounts to three hundred and fifty millions sterling, including the national debts: the whole may even be called *really* current, because it is as easily transferred from one person to another, as gold itself—there is no difference in this respect between publick bonds and bank notes, any British subject will take one as readily as the other.

With such an unbounded profusion of the signs of wealth at home, it may easily be conceived that the small proportion of cash should be constantly draining away to foreigners, especially in a continental war, that cost them above six millions a-year; whereas in a kingdom where signs cannot be substituted for realities, the domestic calls *must* be paid in cash as well as foreign ones, and this necessarily keeps the coin of a state at home. Bank notes, &c. in England, are received by all kinds of people without the least hesitation when

money is plentiful, as in time of peace; even by the government, and in time of war even the subscriptions to the publick funds are made in them, otherwise, how can it be supposed that England could in one year raise eighteen millions sterling, a sum greater than all the current coin in the kingdom. And it is this universality in transacting every thing in paper money at home, that keeps the current cash so low.

That it is low there is abundant proof: During the war silver was amazingly scarce in England, and likewise money in general. In the large manufacturing towns, it was perfectly well known (and accounts were particularly published of it at Birmingham) that cash was so excessive scarce, that a prodigious difficulty was found to change paper currency—Very good bills, within a fortnight of being due, ran at a discount of two and an half *per cent.* and even bank notes at a discount of one half *per cent.* Even two *per cent.* on bank notes, was a common discount in some places, whose corn trade was alone considerable; for the farmers being obliged to be paid in cash alone, the difficulty was the more felt, while the merchants receipts being large, were all in bills.

Money, it is said by some, is very scarce in France: But this is a great mistake. Take a number of years of both peace and war, and it is the very contrary, and it is impossible it should be otherwise, with such vast *real* property, so great a trade, and such considerable manufactures. Nevertheless it is said money is scarce in France, and the mere assertion is handed about all Europe—because all Europe judges of every thing concerning France, by comparison with England; the English travel, and squander immense sums of money; the French cannot—and it is therefore concluded, that the one nation

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is poor, and the other rich; but the very contrary ought to be the conclusion. An Englishman, that possesses ten thousand pounds a-year in the public funds, is paid in notes, he changes these, and his guineas fly about Europe, all home expences he pays in paper—The frenchman, who possesses an estate of ten thousand louis d'ors, cannot act thus; whatever standing expences he leaves behind, gold must be left for them: and yet notwithstanding the possession of one is real, and the other only imaginary, whatever countries they pass through, the one will leave his nation the character of being prodigious rich, by impoverishing it; and the other, that of exceeding poor, because he does not contribute to ruin it.

All private transactions between the English and foreigners are therefore precisely the same as the larger publick ones. The government is engaged in two kinds of expences, the one foreign, and the other domestic; the former can be paid by nothing but cash—the latter may be cleared off with notes; whatever cash they possess therefore is sent abroad, and the notes kept at home—It is just so with private people—all demands from abroad, are satisfied with cash, but if the traveller, or whatever else he may be, has a guardianship—annuities to pay—or in short any large standing expences at home, such are all satisfied with bills.

Publick and private transactions of this nature have all the same tendency; they clearly explain the vast superiority the French have over the English in real wealth; I say nothing here of the balance of trade, that has nothing to do with it, further than being the cause of either nation possessing any specie at all—for a people that have no trade, nor mines, can have no money.

Was it not for the immense quantity of paper currency, with which England is over-run, she would soon, from her balance of trade, possess a real currency beyond that of France, unless the French gained a greater balance of trade.

Such being the causes of the French superiority of *real* wealth, and the different operations of the publick credit of both kingdoms on it, let us next enquire into the effects of this publick credit, on the welfare of the two kingdoms in other respects, or rather on that of England alone; for as to the credit of France, it is not to be compared to that of England, either in facility of borrowing at any interest, or in an equality of interest on the whole: I shall also enquire, what may be the future consequences of the credit of England, and the no credit of France; I shall then be better able to attempt a decision in this article, of which nation is the most powerful, prosperous, and permanently fixed in her advantages, respecting credit.

A great plenty of money, or the signs of money, if entirely current amongst a people, contributes greatly to raise the prices of all sorts of commodities: This is a fact, which reason, as well as history, confirms. The price of all things rising in proportion, as silver flowed in Europe from the Spanish colonies, is well known by all: It must therefore naturally follow, that such a prodigious quantity of paper currency as the English possess, must among them be attended with the same effect; and this is not only a supposition, but the present state of the kingdom absolutely proves it. During the latter years of the war, and ever since the peace, the presses of England have been employed chiefly in introducing to the publick vast numbers of tickets concerning the dearness of all kinds of provisions, and this perpetual cry has held so long,
that

that generations of beasts of all kinds might have been bred, fatted, and eat, in the time—But it is not only in that article; all others are encreased in proportion, they complain—and many of their best writers assert, with innumerable ones of the present times, that the decay of their manufactures, particularly the woollen and silk, is owing to *living* being so extravagantly dear in England, that they cannot work so cheap as foreigners, especially as the French. This dearness of all kinds of provisions, is a stumbling block to a multiplicity of their authors, who have given five hundred reasons for it, but scarce any have hit upon the right one, which is precisely their immense paper currency: As it is impossible such a currency should not be attended in any country with such an effect; and as the effect really exists in England to a very great degree, without any other satisfactory cause being assigned, is it not demonstration, that this is the real cause? The nation is therefore not only saddled with a multiplicity of taxes on the industrious, to pay interest to the lazy, but such taxes are more than doubled by the effects of their paper specie—and both for a perpetuity! Thus when we say, England raises such a revenue, and France such an one—no comparison can be drawn, until the consequences of the paper of the former are taken into the account, and they are beyond doubt of a surprizing amount.

I have already spoke particularly of the great ease with which France recruits the most terrible losses of a war: It would not be so, if she could borrow as freely as England, because then she would in peace groan under the burthen of all her wars, and in fresh ones have to raise the expences of three or four at once. This is the case with England; during the last war, she not only fought Lewis XV. but his great grandfather at

the same time, almost in the zenith of his power; for she not only raised the sums necessary for the war then carrying on, but at the same time kept paying near all the expences of those of King William, Queen Ann, George I. and II. 'till last, the expence of old wars, will in a future one be equal to the new, without reckoning the monstrous addition occasioned by the currency of so much paper.

There can be no comparison therefore between the two nations, in recruiting the losses occasioned by war—England is now more burthened from her late successful one, than France from so unfortunate an one—and that in an infinite proportion; for her acquisitions cost her more than they yield—whereas France not possessing such a publick credit, could not so burthen herself for futurity, if she would; and the conquests and sailors * which her enemy restored to her at the peace, contained the quick vegetating seeds of almost immediate wealth. What therefore would have been the case, had England been as unsuccessful as France, or even half as unsuccessful: Let us suppose Jamaica, Barbadoes, and Virginia, or Maryland, in the hands of France, with a naval power superior to her enemy; can we be so stupid as to suppose the French would have been such idiots as to restore them? No; they would have restored the province of Normandy, and the town of Calais as soon; and England would have found herself in a very different situation.

From the nature of the government of England, there arises a fatality which mars all their treaties of peace. In modern times they have but two successful wars to boast off, both owing to very

* 30.000.

great parts and abilities in the ministers who conducted them, but *prejudice* and faction deprived those men of their power, and peace was made both times to secure that of their oponents—In such a situation, a dash of the pen of a fool gives up the acquisitions of genius and superior abilities—This is ever the case with England; and it is a circumstance so striking, that the English, when they rejoice at the victories of their arms, forget the vanity of their success, when the pen is drawn instead of the sword.

In short, in whatever light we consider publick credit in general, and that of England in particular, we have the strongest reason to give to France in this article, the palm of superiority in the *want* of that which some are so blind as to admire. The effects of it are such on England, that even success (however better it may be than the contrary) in war, brings her no relief, but she sits down at the end of a most triumphant one, under greater burthens, than the very people over whom she is victorious. The effects of her credit have been the depriving her of real wealth, substituting paper in its room, the doubling all her taxes, the enduring at present the expences of wars that happened almost a century ago—the involving all her affairs in the hands of stock-jobbers, and money brokers—the rendering her prosperity in general infinitely precarious; and lastly, the prospect of having the weight of her power sink, on comparison with the rest of Europe. If the cause of such effects is to be valued, my conceptions are not clear enough to comprehend the propriety of such an idea.

Before I entirely dismiss the subject, I shall venture a remark or two on the *event* of the English credit: Now, their debt is arrived at such a prodigious

digious amount; the interest of it, and their quantities of paper currency, grown such a heavy burthen; let us suppose the legislature of the kingdom by an act of parliament, * to convert at one stroke *the whole* of their debt into annuities for the lives of the present possessors only at the present rate of interest. In such an affair as this, nothing should be done by halves, the least slip ruins all future credit, therefore it should be lost for certain gain. The number of stockholders, it is said, are 17,000; is it to be supposed that twice that number, out of ten millions of people, might not be ruined, without a rebellion—a civil war, and a—I know not what, which the interest *money'd men* in England, have almost made the people believe must be the inevitable consequence of a sponge? Absurd and ridiculous! The whole fabrick of the funds would fall at a breath, and who would be hardy enough to draw a sword for revenge? Their incomes would be sure for their lives, and as to their successors, that really had *no other* means of subsistence, the parliament would have it amply in their power to secure them from poverty. But to suppose that any *publick* bad consequences would follow, from such a breach of faith, it is the weakest imagination in the world.

But it will be said, that as fast as the lives dropt, the interest would still be raised, and then be in the power of the crown, which would be a worse consequence to the nation; likewise, that whatever urgent affairs happened afterwards, no money could ever be borrowed again—and lastly, that

* Forty members are *a house*, and an act may be read three times, and receive the Royal assent, all in four hours,

the infamy of such a breach of faith, would reflect eternal dishonour on the nation.

The answer to the first of these observations is decisive; so far is it from one shilling of the interest going to the crown, on the annuities dropping, that it would all go to the sinking fund, which, in other words, is the surplus of all taxes which are raised for the payment of interest, and which is entirely in the disposal of parliament.

Secondly, as to never being able to borrow again, it would be the happiest circumstance that could possibly arise to the nation in general: They would be obliged to raise the revenues necessary for a war, during the continuance of such war, by which means the burthen would never last after a peace was concluded. To effect this would be extremely easy for naval and constitutional wars, and if they were never able again to pour their six millions a-year into Germany, so much the better still. The present revenue of England would, if the debt was sunk, be highly sufficient for any the most extensive war, they could consistently with their interest carry on; especially when their enormous paper currency was sunk; for one million then, would go as far as a million and a quarter now. Lastly, as to the infamy of such a breach of faith, I am not palliating or defending it, I only mean to point out the consequences: But there are some considerations which will soften the idea we have, even of such infamy itself.

The most sensible men in England are well convinced, that the publick debts and paper currency have thrown a weight into the scale of the crown greater than any taken out of it at the revolution: There needs no argument to prove this; and the very idea of liberty being endangered by such a fabrick of credit, is enough, with all honest Britons,

Britons, to make them wish to see it levelled with the ground, and without any imputation of cruelty: The best and dearest interests of a great nation ought never to be given up through justice to a few thousands. Another circumstance which ought not to be forgot, is the natural course of the business left to itself—such ruin and destruction must come by and by, (we know not how soon) to the *few*, and most probably without securing the interest of the *many*. At present an hundred pound of publick fund is not worth more than eighty-five; from whence comes such a discount? The natural event will be a failure of credit, without easing the nation of its burthens; or in other words, utter ruin.

The interest of the debt of England is upwards of four million sterling—upwards of an hundred millions of livres: All would cease (if true *politicks* guided the legislature) in a few years, and some of it immediately, as the annuitants dropt off. Such sums, added to the amount of the sinking fund, would enable the parliament almost directly to ease the people of the most oppressive taxes, and that most oppressive of all, the effect of so much paper, would drop at once—the balance of trade in their favour would pour in natural wealth, *to remain* among them—their trade and manufactures, eased of such heavy burthens, would astonish all Europe, in their immediate progress, and especially, if the parliament, out of the overplus of the nation's revenue, should grant some liberal bounties on the importation of those articles of American produce, which England receives from other nations, particularly the northern ones. —A few judicious acts of parliament to encourage their colonies in articles which could not interfere with the mother country, would, after such an event,
render

render the empire of Britain, the most permanently fixed of any in the universe—and encrease her real power beyond all conception—to a height indeed, which with any other constitution would endanger the liberties of Europe: No; I may venture to assert, that since the time of the Roman empire, the world has not known a dominion so extensive—an influence so unbounded—or riches so permanent, as would be the case with England, trusting to her navy, after such an event.

REVENUES.

I have already stated the revenues of France, in all the branches, and it was then found, that the mean amount of four years was more than nine millions and an half sterling. As to those of England and Scotland, the following concise sketch gives a clear view of them at once.

The customs, excise, duties on salt, stamps, houses, windows, licences—to hackney coaches, &c. places—and pensions, which are perpetual, and all mortgaged for the interest of the national debt, amount to

£. 7,750,000

The interest amounts to about

4,750,000

Revenue remaining from these branches

3,000,000

From this overplus, the civil list is taken, settled for the life of the king

700,000

Remains clear

2,300,000

The

The land and malt taxes which are annual	-	-	2,250,000
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Total of the revenue of England.			4,550,000
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I scarcely know what deductions are to be made from the revenue of France on account of their national debt, for their funds chiefly consist of annuities, which are perpetually dropping in, but then the interest is prodigiously high, even to 10 and 12 *per cent*. I shall therefore suppose it at present three millions and an half—the account I have already inserted of the king's expences in 1759, makes it more in that year; but I apprehend at present it cannot be more than I mention, and we should not forget that in any time of distress it is just what the ministry chuses to pay: That sum deducted therefore from nine millions and an half, the clear revenue remaining, is six millions and an half sterling. I doubt not but there are many who will believe the revenue of France greater than I have stated it—but until some good authority is to be met with of a later date, it is best to rely upon that I have inserted; however, if the clear produce is larger than I have stated it, I am very apt to believe it must be from the sums I have mentioned as the interest of their debt, which, from the confusion of their bankruptcy, might jumble something out, something to the king's advantage, not generally known.

The clear income of France therefore, is just two millions superior to that of England.

If we form proportional comparisons of these clear revenues, that of England is the largest; for sixteen millions and an half of people, giving a revenue of six and an half, the proportion of eight

millions

millions of people in England and Scotland, would give rather better than three millions of revenue—whereas the reality is four and an half—the proportion would not be equal if Ireland was taken in, but I have omitted that, as the revenue is rather equivocal, in a comparison between England and France, because it is applied to domestic purposes, and never to annoy an enemy. It is the great trade of England, which enables it to support burthens so much greater than France, and the superiority of such burthens is certain, for the effects, I have enlarged upon so much, of paper credit, adds infinitely to their amount. The reason why the revenues appear to be so much heavier in France than in England, is the inequality in the assessments; the poor are favoured in the latter kingdom, whereas in the former they bear the chief load.

The proportion of the clear revenues to the soil of the two kingdoms, is as follows: France containing ninety-six millions of acres, yielding a revenue of six millions and an half, amounts to sixteen pence sterling an acre.

England and Scotland's revenue, is four millions and an half—the number of acres about fifty millions, or twenty two pence *per* acre.—Thus much for the *clear* revenue; or that of the present time; I shall, in the next place, see the proportions of the whole, without deducting the interest of the respective debts. That of France nine millions and an half; and of England and Scotland exactly ten.

Nine and an half, divided amongst sixteen millions and an half of people, is eleven shillings and six pence each.

Ten millions amongst eight million of people, is twenty-five shillings each.

The

The French, therefore, do not pay *half* the taxes the English do. If the tax of paper currency is added to this, the disproportion will be found yet greater.

As to the soil; France containing ninety six millions of acres, and paying nine millions and an half in taxes, is at the rate of about two shillings an acre.

England and Scotland's ten millions revenue, on fifty millions of acres, is four shillings each, or just double that of France.

A R M Y.

The disproportion between the two nations, in this article, is very great. England here has the advantage greatly; she keeps a standing army of only 17,000 men, while that of France amounts to near 200,000; but as the French ministry have reduced their troops more after the late war, than after most others, I shall for explicitness in my calculations, call their constant force 170,000 men.

The proportion of that number to 16,500,000 people, is as one to an hundred.

The English army of 17,000 men, from 8,000,000, is as 1 to 500, this disproportion is prodigiously to the advantage of England, in her having so small a comparative number of men maintained by the state in idleness: One in an hundred is a great burthen to a county, for it should be remembered that they are all *men* in their vigor, and most of them in their youth; if the whole number of able bodied men were known, the loss would then appear much greater. Strike women out of the question, and it immediately becomes one in fifty; and children, the old, lame, or otherwise improper men, and it possibly would be found one in twenty,

ty, which certainly must be burthensome to any country.

During the last war, the forces of the two nations were nearer an equality in point of numbers; indeed the power of England was never before so wonderfully displayed: for latterly she had in her pay above three hundred and fifty thousand men, but the allied army in Germany was chiefly foreigners, and there was a considerable army of Americans in the number. However, I apprehend she had more subjects engaged than the French had, without reckoning the Americans.

The English troops justly acquired, during the late war, a most distinguished character for bravery and discipline—none ever exceeded them—the honor of this reputation almost equalled the meanness and acknowledged poverty of national genius, so apparent in placing their grand army under a foreign mercenary general.

N A V Y.

I cannot draw a parallel between the number of sailors kept up by the two nations in time of peace, because the French court are perpetually varying them, according to the business of the day, whereas in England, the number is fixed at 16,000 by parliament. It is the exceeding bad policy of the latter in keeping so few, that may, one day or other endanger her safety: For a maritime power to keep more soldiers than sailors in pay, is infatuation itself, and can be resolved into nothing but the ministry's being eager for a numerous army, because the commissions in it are better assistants to bribery, than any in the navy; such a conduct is almost the natural consequence of the form of government in England.

The most keen eyed politicians in Europe, are either greatly mistaken in their prophecies, or France will, one time or other, revenge that masterly stroke of politicks in her enemy, of seizing her ships before war was declared : That single act commanded at once the fate of the war. But it has set an example which an arbitrary crown, that of course possesses vast advantages at such sudden work, will doubtless take occasion to follow : Nothing could be easier than for the French ministry, after encreasing their marine with all possible expedition, and keeping 50, or 60,000 sailors in constant pay ; to lull the court of London into security, and when they were ready for action, let loose the whole force of France in 20, 30, and 40 gun frigates, on the trade of England ; their enemy would then feel the consequence of reducing their royal seamen to 16,000, three times that number would be in the ports of France, before such a fleet sailed from England, as would oblige the French to man their first rates. The English would then wish their 17,000 landmen were transformed to sailors. As to the motives for such a conduct, pretences will never be wanting by the court of France, for acting to their convenience.

If the French act in future, on a truly political plan, England can never be safe without keeping 30,000 sailors in constant employment, and besides that prudential conduct—she ought *on the political plan*, to take occasion to quarrel with France, whenever the French marine begins to wear a formidable appearance, or threatens in a distant manner to rival her own ; by such, and only such means, she can secure to herself the empire of the sea. Hitherto accidents, and the blunders of her enemy have performed all this for her, but chance should never be trusted to too much.—But the
national

national debt of England! you will cry out—true; that indeed I forgot—that requires as Machiavelian a stroke as the French navy.

I have in a former letter drawn a comparison between the navies of the two nations, as to number of ships, guns, and value, there remains therefore the less to add to this—

A nation that is not in possession of a great trade, can never raise a formidable navy, but when the trade is gained, the navy comes very speedily: A monarch possessing so large a revenue as the king of France, and his subjects carrying on so considerable a commerce, has nothing to do, but to resolve to be powerful by sea—if he has able ministers about him, he will speedily be so: And when his grand enemy's great resources lye in trade, a powerful navy is the only sure means of distressing them, and enriching his own subjects in a future war. Becoming formidable at sea, is therefore not only the effect, but the cause of trade, for if France was once to become stronger at sea than England, the superior trade of the latter would soon sink. It must however be allowed, that, let the French court act the most political part possible, it will notwithstanding always be in the power of England to retain her superiority, and even dictate in effect the number of ships her enemy shall build, and that in spite of the whole house of Bourbon, and even all Europe—but this conduct, so necessary to the glory of England, requires a government less shackled with factions than that of the English.

COLONIES.

In this respect the two nations are unequal. The English settlements in America, are of greater

importance than those of France—and form indeed the chief pillar of England's greatness. But we are not from thence to conclude—that those of France are of little account.

Of the North American continent, each nation has a share, that of England is by much the most valuable, because it contains almost the whole sea coast, abounding with numbers of navigable rivers, and secure harbours, by which means the port towns, not only readily export the productions of the settlements, but carry on a large foreign trade. Those settlements are well peopled, and produce naturally every individual thing the English import from any part of the world, except spices and tea, and both might be raised there. But, notwithstanding these advantages, for want of encouragement, the colonies instead of producing what is wanting in England, turn their attention to manufactures, which prejudice the sale of those of their mother country. The chief productions of that vast line of coast, are naval stores of all kinds, tobacco, rice, indigo, and lumber.

The share which France has of this continent, will not bear a comparison with that of England, and it is yet in its mere infancy, not containing, I suppose, an hundred and fiftieth part of the inhabitants, and extending a vast range of inland country, with but little sea coast, and that not abounding with harbours: however, there is no doubt but some one of the mouths of the Mississippi might be made navigable to large ships, if the court of France was sensible of its importance, and if that was once effected, considering its prodigious inland navigation, the colony would prove of vast consequence; it naturally produces all the commodities of the English ones, with a more advantageous situation for communicating with the
West

West India islands: I have minuted these circumstances, rather as what Louisiana might be, than what it is.

The Newfoundland codfishery is divided between the two nations; in point of settlements around those seas the English have the advantage—but whether the little islands in the heart of the fishery, ceded to France by the last peace, will not answer all the purposes of fishing, is a doubt, the vast progress they have made these last three years, gives very great reason to believe those islands answer to the French much better than the English ever expected they would. I cannot but suppose this fishery divided.

As to the West India islands, the French are as much superior there, as the English on the continent, and with ten times a greater opportunity of enlarging their wealth and power, than the English islands have: There is no comparison between the island of Guardalupe, *fully cultivated*, and all the present West India possessions of the English taken together. But, besides Guardalupe, Martinico is a noble island, superior to any of the English ones; and lastly, that of Hispaniola, is equal to all the rest, both French and English. This noble island will one day or other be found the source of infinite riches to the mother country; so beautiful and fertile a colony, four hundred miles long, and near two broad, producing all the necessaries of life in the greatest abundance, with immense quantities of the richest products in the world, will most undoubtedly daily increase in value, and become in the industrious hands of the French, without exception, the richest and most important colony on the globe; considering the genius of the two nations, I will not except any one of those belonging to the Spaniards.

If the exact imports and exports to and from the respective colonies in France and England were known, I have little doubt but the balance of the West India trade, would be found so greatly in favour of the former, as to equal the value of two or three of the best continental settlements of the latter: One important profit of the American settlements is, the consumption of the mother country's manufactures: Now there is no comparison between the continental, and the island colonies, in this respect, those of the English do not consume a twentieth part of what the sugar islands do, in proportion to the number of people; of course the superiority of France, lying in the islands, a much greater proportion of her manufactures are consumed; or, in other words, an hundred Frenchmen in America consume twenty times more of their manufactures, than an hundred Englishmen on the continent do of English manufactures.

I would not be thought to depreciate the value of the English colonies in America: I well know their importance; but, at the same time, I cannot subscribe to the opinion, that those of France are inconsiderable: On the contrary, although the English have an undoubted superiority in this article, yet it is not so prodigiously great, as some would have us believe: The islands of Hispaniola, Guardalupe, and Martinico, are of must unbounded importance, and will yearly increase in importance. —

As to the English colonies increasing in value, it is a very doubtful point—I am much inclined to believe it will diminish: and for the following reasons, which it is observable have not escaped the best English writers.

- I. The numbers of the inhabitants increase so prodigiously

prodigiously, that they will be able to supply themselves with manufactures of their own. There are at present great numbers of the inhabitants that manufacture nine tenths of what they wear, or use. This must increase.

II. Labour becomes so dear in England, not so much owing to being so much heavier taxed than the French, as to the enormous load of their paper currency, that the English will oblige their colonies to manufacture for themselves, by selling them every thing so extremely dear—and prodigiously dear every article must be—wrought in a country with such a currency, and then having the expence of such a freight on it. And it should be remembered that the trifling bounties granted by their legislature on hemp, deals, &c. have been attended with no effect.

III. The soil of the English sugar islands is nearly wore out ; insomuch, that it requires a prodigious expence of manure, besides fallowing.

IV. The English continental settlements encrease so prodigiously in inhabitants, that their best writers express some apprehensions (and those built on no slight foundations) that they will throw off the yoke of the mother country: And that this fear is not entirely vain—let us consider that the number of whites, in British America, amounts to near 1,400,000, and it is agreed by all, that they double every twenty-five years. In fifty years therefore, the people in America will be as numerous as those in England, and in another century, their number will amount to above twenty two millions. Can the English think they will be able to retain such a number of American subjects in obedience!

The monarch, then on the throne of England, will be weak indeed, if he does not set sail to America, and take up his residence in the midst of an empire, which seems formed by nature to command the world.

From these considerations, I may safely assert, that the French have a greater prospect of their colonies, *improving in advantage to their mother country*, than the English have: they have likewise a *certainly* of retaining theirs in obedience, whereas that circumstance with the English is at best extremely doubtful.

As to East Indian and African settlements, they are not to be ranked under the title of colonies. In respect to their trade, an equality subsists between the two nations in Africa; but in the East Indies, the English are twenty times superior to the French.

The isles of France and Bourbon, possessed by the French, and of late years prodigiously improved, are of vast importance, both as to their situation with respect to the India trade, and in their products. The latter are the same as those of the West India islands, with some valuable additions; Their importance has lately been well understood in France, and their culture greatly increased, insomuch, that I may without exaggeration consider them as very valuable possessions, and as no mean weight in the scale of France. They are beyond doubt of greater importance to that kingdom, than ever Canada or Arcadia were.

GENERAL PROSPERITY AND POWER.

I have linked together two circumstances, which, I am sensible, do not always go hand in hand; but the nature of the subject requires them to be considered

sidered together here. A judgment may be formed of these points, either from the preceding articles, or the general appearance of the two nations at present, not forgetting the manifest superiority of England in the late war. Let us endeavour to combine these two points of view, and form an idea of the whole from such respective parts.

I have already shewn that in fertility, populousness, and *real* wealth, France has vastly the advantage; and likewise in government, her army, as far as it concerns *power*. On the contrary, England has greatly the superiority in government credit *, Trade, Agriculture †, Colonies ‡, and naval power. It is these points of superiority that gave her the vast success she met with in the late war.

It would be ridiculous not to assert, that the general prosperity of England, at present, is very great and striking: she even in appearance bears away a superiority in those very points which most unprejudiced people think to her detriment. Thus all the successes that graced her arms during the late war, are said justly enough to be owing to her credit, and, according to the present system, they certainly were: it was by means of credit that twenty millions sterling were expended in one year against France, near four hundred thousand men in pay, and the terror of her name carried to the remotest corners of the earth. To argue against the cause of such effects, bears so much the appearance of paradox, that I can scarcely speak of credit without an apology. But as this is a time of peace, and credit does not now kindle up a meteor to blind us with, I may venture to assert on the

* I speak here of what is generally supposed. I have before shewn that credit is pernicious.

† Taken in general, the good of husbandmen included.

‡ At present.

whole, as I have already done in particular, that this credit is pernicious, and that it greatly takes from the general prosperity of England. Throwing future credit, therefore, entirely out of the question, the prosperity of England rests on much better foundations; those of a most happy government, a well managed agriculture, a most extensive commerce, a large revenue, and a formidable navy. In all these respects she is greatly the superior of France.

The latter kingdom boasts a greater natural fertility, a much greater degree of populousness, a vast superiority of wealth, and a greater aggregate of military power in her numerous army, her fleet, and the arbitrary form of her government.

The English nation at large is by far the happiest (notwithstanding all the superior burthens they bear) in being so mildly governed, and in those burthens not being laid on the whole unequally, which is so terrible in France.

In a word, England is the most prosperous; France the richest and most powerful*.

I shall

* — “ France the most powerful! — That is very strange, when the contrary appeared so palpable the last war.” — It may be so; but I have reasons for adhering to my opinion. In the first place, I consider the credit and paper currency of the English as worse than nothing; and many of their own writers are of the same opinion: in other words, it is submitting to a standing prejudice for a temporary advantage. Secondly, the great success of England in the late war was not perhaps so much owing to her real power as the political stroke of seizing the French ships, and likewise to the instability of the French councils, with a vain extravagant woman at their head. But six or seven years before no such power appeared in England, even with useful allies; add to this all their efforts in Germany, at an expence of six millions a year, did nothing. The French, had they not chose to protract the war there, could have driven the English, with their foreign mercenary general, to Closter-Severn, as they had before done the duke of Cumberland. But taking six millions from Eng-

land's

I shall now proceed to draw a comparison between the two nations in the fine arts and literature; first, in

ARCHITECTURE.

If a parallel was drawn between the most noted buildings in France and England, without respect to those only which have been raised during the present age, the balance would prove greatly in favour of England. St. Paul's cathedral is allowed to be the second sacred building in Europe: nothing in France can be brought in opposition to it; nor is there any thing in France that exceeds St. Stephen's Walbrook, though scarce known in England. And if true genuine simplicity of taste meets with any relish, the superb Versailles will bow to the poor neglected banquetting-house at Whitehall. It must, however, be confessed, that England has nothing to oppose to the front of the Louvre.

The superiority also of the present age I must likewise think is with England: the principal buildings lately raised in France are Bellevue, Choisi, and the Place de Louis XV, the latter unfinished. In point of beauty, we may, without hesitation, pronounce Holkam, the earl of Leicester's seat in Norfolk, particularly the south front, and the front

land's expences there, and likewise 20,000 troops, would have gone near, under so active a minister, to have half ruined France; pushing German success would therefore have been highly impolitic. Lastly, we are not to determine at once the power of a country from success in one short war, especially when very ill success attended her arms so short a time before. I must again repeat, that the great actions of the English have been performed by means of credit. Ten thousand French, landed in England, though they were cut in pieces in no long time, would knock that credit at head.—such kind of power is not to be too highly rated *in the general*.

of Spencer-house in London, to exceed either Bellevue or Choisi : and as to the Place de Louis XV, the Circus at Bath, in my humble opinion, exceeds it, without having recourse to the other magnificent piles of building in the same city. In another stile, what has France, or indeed Europe, to bring in competition with the famous bridge at Westminster? And if regularity of ground-plot, and disposition of apartments, peculiarly adapted to convenience of living (in the English manner) be considered, nothing in France equals the same Holkam, the most convenient elegant building in Britain; nor can Europe produce a pile extending 350 feet in front that is of a more light and agreeable taste of architecture, particularly, as I observed, before the south front. Notwithstanding this superiority of the English, I must remark two other buildings, even in their capital, of a public nature and large expence, the erecting which was an opportunity to display a fine taste, in which a most execrable one prevails; the lord mayor of London's mansion, and the king's horse-guards. The former is a quarry of heaviness; the latter a cluster of insignificancies.

PAINTING.

Almost the whole merit of the English painting may be summed up in the present age. Notwithstanding Mr. Walpole has been so voluminous concerning the painters his country has produced, there are scarce any of those he has mentioned that are generally known, and none that can be compared to those at present in England. Among these the English praise (as warmly as the taste of the nation will admit, which leads them ever to hold foreign works in greater estimation than their own) West and Pine in history; two artists, it must be

be allowed, of great merit; but the first the superior, and may with justice be reckoned the best painter England ever produced. I have seen a Venus and Cupid of his (for which I have been told he had three hundred guineas) equal almost to any thing in delicacy and the beautiful.—The Smiths (two brothers) in landskips: these painters are excellent, and have performed some pieces for the society of arts of rare and genuine merit.—Hudson and Reynolds in portraits; these artists are much spoken of in England. I have seen some pieces done by them which had no inconsiderable merit. Lastly, Hogarth in the grotesque.

As to the artists of France, they bear away the palm of painting beyond a doubt. Greuze, Grenée, Boucher, Destrayes, and Vanloo, besides many others, in history. Vernet in landskips. Drouais, Rigaud, Roslin, De la Tour, &c. in portraits,—all are superior to the English. It must, however, be allowed, that they have nothing in low painting equal to Hogarth.

SCULPTURE.

In this walk of genius the superiority is yet greater on the side of France. Roubilliac and Rysbrac were both foreigners, and only worked in England; but Wilton is an artist of considerable merit; however, neither him, nor all the statuaries of England, are near sufficient to balance the names of Bouchardon, Adam Falconet, Pigale, &c. &c.

ENGRAVING.

A disproportion yet greater! Nevertheless, the English, at present, possess by far the greatest engraver

graver their nation ever produced, Strange; and if we speak only of capital artists, he alone claims being mentioned here *. And what comparison will his works bear with those of Dorigny—with those of Cars—Le Bas, Cochin, Lépicié, Vignet, or twenty others? A comparison is no sooner named than decided.

I cannot avoid remarking here the vast superiority of France which appears in those literary works that are ornamented with engravings in the two nations. The editions in folio and octavo of La Fontaine and M. de Voltaire's edition of Corneille (to speak of no others, although an hundred might be named) are decorated with prints that do honour to that kingdom. Nothing of this merit is to be met with in England: works are there ornamented with prints, but none that are good, at least none that ever came to my knowledge. Neither those in the quarto editions of Milton, Spencer, nor Mr. Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting, are any thing comparable to the French.

M U S I C.

English and French merit, in this respect, is decided in a moment. The French stick to their own music, which is good for nothing; the English adopt that of the Italians; or perhaps it may be said they formed a distinct school under Handel, some of whose compositions are more than human; but I should remark, that they are at present totally employed in *execution*. Melody and harmony are less considered than a surprizing command of a

* There are many other *good* engravers in England; but I mention only those of a distinguished reputation of either nation.

quick and difficult execution, which is a most vicious taste; and if it increases in proportion to its growth since the death of Handel, will render their whole musical tribe almost as contemptible as that of France.

* * *

MATHEMATICAL WRITERS.

There is scarcely any thing of the kind more difficult than to form a comparison, with intention of deducing a superiority, between the writers of two nations, when they both greatly excel, or are both very mean. The English and French mathematical authors of the present age have both considerable merit; but if I venture to assert, that either is superior to the other, the decision will, to many, carry the appearance of partiality. Among the French the capital names D'Alembert, Maupertuis, Clairaut, Caille, Castel, Saverien, Condamine, and Bourguignon, are well known; and Saunderson, Maclaurin, Ferguson, Simpson, and Murdoch, are equally famous with the English. All these are very celebrated men: I should, however, observe, that the former set are quoted here merely for their mathematical works; they have composed numerous ones, in other branches of literature, of great merit. The English writers, on the contrary, have confined themselves intirely to mathematics; and although they have not the *general* reputation of the French, yet is their merit equal in this particular.

NATURAL HISTORY.

In this branch of study the French must undoubtedly be allowed the superiority. The authors of the present age in France, who have dedicated

dedicated their labours to this most useful purpose, are men of a most enlarged genius and uncommon abilities. The illustrious names of Buffon, D'Aubenton, Reaumur, Nollet, Macquer, Mairan du Bois, and du Hamel, appear amongst them. In England the most noted are Hales, Miller, Mead, Hill, Catesby, Edwards, and Borlace. Very ingenious men, and some of them remarkably so; but the balance will nevertheless remain with the French. And it should be remembered, that the most useful study of natural history has met with greatly more encouragement in France than in England, the French king having, in more instances than one, been very liberal in this respect; and as a great many researches in this branch of philosophy are extremely expensive, such encouragement must be attended with very great effect. Scarce any has been given in England; native genius and industry are all the assistants natural history has met with there, some few trifling subscriptions excepted.

AGRICULTURE.

As to the *practice* of agriculture, I have been already particular on it in another place, in respect of the writers who have made this noble subject their study; there is but little comparison between the French and English. It is somewhat remarkable that husbandry should thrive most where least known; yet this is in some measure the case. The writings of the present French authors, in this branch of human learning, have never been exceeded. From the reign of Constantine IV. to the present age, husbandry writings were never in the repute they ought; notwithstanding the works of some good authors, both in Italian and English, their importance was never known. But at present the

the world seems convinced of the absurdity of neglecting rural oeconomics, and giving greater attention to authors, who treat of the art of destroying mankind, than those who teach their preservation.

In this walk of genius, France at present boasts her Turbilly, du Hamel, and his *French* correspondents, d'Ambourney, Tillet, and many others. England to oppose to these, has her Harte*, Home, Dickson, Baker, and Rocque. The experimental writings of the first are admirable, but confined to Lucerne alone—the rest have merit—but the aggregate of the whole will scarce bear naming with their numerous opponents among the French, whose works are of the greatest honour to their country, and superior to any of the kind which have appeared, during this age, in any part of Europe.

HISTORY.

It was long a matter of reproach to England that she had not produced a good historian; but whatever foundation there might have been for such an assertion, before the present age, there is no longer any; the best historians of France, are Voltaire and Henault. The former, particularly, is justly celebrated for the judicious and most entertaining manner, in which he traces the progress of the arts and sciences, and marks the distinguishing characteristics of nations and ages. But great as this very ingenious author's merit undoubtedly is; his nation, at large, must give way to the superiority of England, who in history boasts a

* This gentleman's Essay on Rural OEconomics; in general, was never exceeded by any writer.

Hume, a Robertson, a Campbell, a MacAuley, a Harte, and a Hooke: authors, who, (without naming some others) bear away the palm from any the French can produce.

GOVERNMENT and POLITICKS.

The very idea of a comparison between the two nations in this respect, will be rejected by those who think that such subjects can be treated nowhere well, but among a free people. To talk of political writings in France, say they, is the height of absurdity. But on a closer examination, such sentiments will not be found entirely just. It should be remembered, that the science of politics embraces a vast variety of topics, which the subjects of an arbitrary monarchy are allowed as freely to handle, as those of the most limited one; and such topics, include every thing that is *in general useful*, as to criticisms on the conduct of the ministers and kings of the day, and all that may be included under the title of party politics, the French must not meddle with; but is that any loss to their national character? Or does that of England gain by such liberty? Far from it: The *liberty* of being abusive, or in other words the liberty of the press, is necessary to the English liberty in general, and of infinite importance to the nation; it is a part of the constitution: But the freest writings—and those which are peculiar to a country where such liberty reigns, are very seldom capital ones, that are of general value, and that will be read by posterity. As a proof of this the very best political pieces, which the present age has produced in England, had they been composed, would have been licenced in France: It will likewise be found, that the present age has produced,

duced, in the latter country, some works greatly deserving of praise.

Among the political writers of England, appear Campbell, Hume, Bolingbroke, Hanway, Postlethwayte, Mawduit, Montagu, and Ralph. In France, we find Montesquieu, Mirabeau, Boulainvilliers, Dangeul, Forbonnais, &c. &c. The great name of Montesquieu, will incline many to give the preference to the French; but, on the other hand, Campbell, and Postlethwayte, are authors of prodigious knowledge, their works greatly excellent, and in respect of *use* to their country, by far beyond even Montesquieu himself. I think we may with reason give the palm to England, not, however, without sentiments of very great respect for the French authors in this class.

MORAL PHILOSOPHY.

A multitude of reasons might be given for this manly science not flourishing in France; with so vigorous a growth, as it has generally done in England; the noble freedom which reigns in the latter country, is favourable to every exertion of the human mind, and remarkably so to all philosophical researches. The following authors are famous in France, and England, in the branch of morals; the deistical opinions of some have, however, been refuted by many.

Among the French appear Diderot, Formey, Condillac, Premontval, d'Argens, Maupertuis, d'Alembert, and Helvetius. But the following English greatly turn the scale, Hutcheson, Bolingbroke, Hume, Johnson, Harris, Hawksworth and Smith.

CRITICISM.

The number of works that are published on this subject in both kingdoms, is surprizing, and yet very few authors have gained much reputation for their critical pieces in either. England has the superiority, the critical works of Hurd, Webb, Kaimes, Johnson, Wharton, and Moor, being preferable to those of Voltaire, Marmontel, Batteux, Argens, Raynal, De la Tour.

ROMANCE.

It will perhaps be thought that *Romance*, is a more proper term, for works of imagination, in prose, than *Novel*: However I use it here instead of the latter. No country ever came up to England for productions of this sort. Perhaps the famous Richardson, was the greatest genius the world ever knew in the art of painting the characters of mankind, without excepting any poet whatever. Besides that great man, Fielding, Lenox, Smollet, Hawkefworth, and Johnson, appear, a list far superior to Crebillon, Marivaux, Marmontel, Argens, Voltaire, Riccoboni, Beaumont, Mouhy, and Prevost.

EPIC.

The *Henriade* of Voltaire, in contrast to the *Leonidas* of Glover! The latter, as an epic, is the greatest work, but not the most agreeable poem: but neither of them deserve mention.

DRAMATIC.

The two nations, for several ages, were in nothing

thing more remarkable for their contrasts than the taste of their dramas. The French theatric poets are remarkable for the strictest adherence to the unities and other critical rules of composition; whereas the best among the English poets disdained them; and this difference of principle, produced a vast difference of merit. The works of the French were correct, in respect of critical rules, but greatly wanting in strokes of genuine *character* in those interesting transitions which enable the poet to lay open the heart of man, and draw forth every passion and affection of the mind into life itself: This superior merit rested entirely with the English: But in the present age, the case is widely different; their poets now plume themselves on the same exactness as the French, and unfortunately become good for nothing else, at least in tragedy; in comedy they take greater freedoms, and so have more merit; but in both (since they have wrote so critically) are much inferior to the French. Home, Mason, Brown, Johnson, Whitehead, Garrick, Colman, Hoadley, Doddsley, Foote, Fielding, Bickerstaff, and Murphy, are, on the whole, much inferior to Voltaire, Crebillon, Boissi, Destouches, Saintfoix, Pyron, Marivaux, Favart, Riccoboni, Belloi, and de la Harpe.

POETRY in GENERAL.

In comparing authors who write in different languages, it is one question whose works are the best to the world at large? but another, which poets have the greatest merit? and what makes this distinction is the difference of language. There can be no comparison between the English and French, for genuine and sublime poetry, animated description, or true harmony. The poverty

of the French language appears in nothing stronger, than the necessity their poets are under of composing even their tragedies in rhyme: By the way, it will not be amiss to remark the inconsistency of being so ridiculously scrupulous in attending to the probable, so much in respect of the three unities, and so mighty blind to the glaring absurdity of conversation of every kind, being carried on in rhyme; than which, there does not in any art or science exist so palpable a folly. If we examine the poetry itself of the present age, without reflections on the natural powers displayed in it, the English have greatly the advantage: Akenfide, Gray, Mason, Littleton, Shenstone, Glover, Churchill, Wharton, Collins, Mallet, Whitehead, &c. are superior to Voltaire, Crebillon, Pyron, Greffier, Marivaux, Marmontel, &c. &c. &c.

WRITERS ON PAINTING.

In this branch of criticism the French have the superiority, Argenville, Cochin, Argens, Caylus, Font, Mariette, Baillet, and Blanc, have produced works of greater merit in this respect, than Walpole, Webb.

THE ART OF WAR.

A comparison decided the moment it is named: France overflows with excellent military treatises. The English practice this art; the French compose on it.

MISCELLANIES.

In various subjects, which do not come under any of the foregoing heads, and in general essays, and

and slight pieces, each nation has its authors that figure in agreeableness. Among the French appear, Voltaire, Bastide, Beaumelle, Trublet, Chevrier, Coyer, d'Arc, Deslandes, du Clos, Esteve, Mouhy, Pesselier, Argens. The English boast of Walpole, Melmoth, Johnson, Hume, Hawksworth, Chesterfield, Littleton, Colman, Thornton, Jennings, Shenstone, Doddsley, Hay, Goldsmith.

Relative to these authors, opinions will doubtless vary greatly; and, I apprehend, on an attentive enquiry, they will be found nearly equal.

FEMALE WRITERS.

It is at present much the taste in France, for the ladies to compose; the advocates for this fashion, assert the equality of the human mind, in both sexes, and speak greatly of the general taste for literature, which it occasions. Others, however, are of a different opinion, and condemn the practice as pernicious: Moderation in this, as in most other affairs, is nearest the truth: It would be an absurdity to assert, that a woman ought not to compose a valuable work, merely because she is a woman; but the misfortune lies in its becoming the mode for fashionable women to commence authors, whatever may be their powers. The best known amongst the French ladies that have published, are Gomez, Puisieux, Villeneuve, Luffan, Riccoboni, Lubert, and Beaumont. The most celebrated of the English, are, Montagu, Carter, Fielding, MacAnlay, Lenox, Sheridan, Pilkington, Leapor, Tollet; and these carry the superiority.

ACADEMIES, UNIVERSITIES, and SOCIETIES.

France has several universities, there are likewise

wise several in the English dominions: The rules of conduct and education in these vary in some respects, but come, in general, within the same outline. France possesses many royal academies, particularly, the French academy, for the perfecting the French language. The academy of Inscriptions, and Belles Lettres, intended for the culture of polite literature, the explanation of ancient inscriptions, and composing new ones for statues, medals, &c. The academy of Sciences. The academy of Painting and Sculpture. The academy of Architecture. The academy of Surgery; and the academy of Agriculture. These are all established at Paris, besides which, every city, and almost every town in the kingdom have, some their royal academies, and others their societies, either for the fine arts, literature, or agriculture.

In respect of academies royal, there is no such thing in England; and as to societies, they are very scarce. The royal society for the sciences, and that for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, are all there are at London. A society for the encouragement of agriculture at Dublin, and another at Edinburgh. From hence it appears that these institutions are by no means so common in England, as in France; only one of the foregoing, and that the most useless of all, is royal. This point will therefore bear no comparison.

In respect of private societies, that at Dublin for the advancement of agriculture, is admirably constituted, and has been of capital use to the kingdom of Ireland. The parliament have granted for their use, at different times, considerable sums of money, which those patriots who compose it have expended for the true honor and welfare of the kingdom.

The

The London society is the first in Europe, in general utility—munificent liberality, and genuine patriotism. Great sums of money have been granted in the most judicious premiums for the encouraging a vast variety of arts, and more real benefit has attended their endeavours, than is conceivable; and yet wonderful to say—the English parliament, out of above a hundred millions of money granted since this society's institution, has never assigned it a shilling, notwithstanding the objects of their premiums are so wonderfully extensive, as to exceed the bounds of all private contributions. This one society is a balance, to all that France can boast. One circumstance, however, which diminished its utility considerably, must not be forgot; no transactions or memoirs of it are published, a failing of very bad consequences, for their country at large is entirely ignorant of the success of their premiums; so that the most successful result of their encouragements in any branch, becomes no inducement to the people, for want of being acquainted regularly with the effects of all trials and experiments, undertaken through the means of the society. Was this objection removed, none in the world, in any respect, would be comparable to it.

As to the utility of academies of the fine arts, opinions concerning it are various. They have been almost equally condemned and approved. The truth is, such institutions will never advance a country from mediocrity to perfection. Will never render France equal to Italy: But, on the contrary, they have a considerable effect, in advancing a people from a low state, to some degree of reputation and merit, and to preserve a succession of artists, though not capital, yet of greater note than would possibly appear without such institutions:

tions: They likewise render their works more known, and spread a general taste. For instance, there are more paintings of middling merit in France, on account of her societies, than there otherwise would be, but not more capital geniuses. Nor is the number of literary works, which do honour to the age, encreased by literary societies, but the number of middling pieces, undoubtedly is.

* * * *

Thus have I ventured to sketch a comparison between the two nations, in every point of any importance: A task most difficult to perform minutely; but I flatter myself you will accept this outline, for want of a complete picture. Those who have better opportunities, and greater abilities, may improve upon the hint, and perfect the design. Let us, in the next place, take a retrospect on the several particulars, and, if I may use the expression, strike a balance between the two kingdoms.

FRANCE is superior in the points of,

Extent

Fertility

Situation

Populousness

Capital *

General wealth

Publick credit †

Painting

Sculpture

* The superiority is given to France, because Paris is less populous than London: I have given my reasons before.

† This publick credit is perplexing when ever I speak of it, but I can never be brought to rank that as a superiority to a nation, which is its greatest burthen, and which threatens its destruction. France, by not possessing the means of being thus hurt, is superior.

Na-

Writers on {
 Natural history
 Agriculture
 Painting
 Art of War
 Academies.

ENGLAND carries the superiority in

Government
 Agriculture
 Commerce
 Revenue
 Army
 Navy
 Colonies
 General prosperity
 Architecture
 Music
 History
 Government and politicks
 Moral philosophy
 Criticism
 Romance
 Poetry
 Societies.

In the aggregate of the whole, considered as a kingdom, France is superior.

As a nation England.

* She is superior in this respect, because her navy is more powerful than that of France; and yet I rank her, likewise, superior in point of army, because she is less powerful: There is no contradiction in this, the one is a natural force to the nation, and of benefit to every thing else; the other pernicious.

LETTER X.

RELATIVE to many of the foregoing subjects, I have selected some curious observations from authors of character, which will be very assisting to set them in a clear light; but as they vary in some particulars from the preceding accounts; I think they will appear more properly here, attended with some explanatory remarks, than inserted in the former letters.

REVENUE and PRODUCTS.

In respect to the general produce and revenue of France, the following calculation is worthy of attention.*

I. The first valuation is of the four capital crops, grasses, woods, vines, and arable lands; and the three first are to be divided each into two classes, and these classes by gradation. In respect to the fourth, we shall fix in the result of circumstantial and decisive details of the actual culture of land among us, exactly and profoundly discussed in the Encyclopædia, article Grains.

FIRST KIND.

GRASSES.

We reckon about six millions of acres of grasses, pastures and marshes, the produce of which per

* *Theorie de l'Impôt*, p. 121. All the sums reduced at 16½ d. sterl. per livre.

acre, varies from £ 8 : 15 s. down to an halfpenny. Therefore to find the produce of these six millions of acres, we shall divide them in gradations of twenty classes, whereof the pastures form the first, and are calculated at an high price, in proportion to the smallness of the quantity. The inferior grasses form the second order, and are marked in proportion to their larger quantity. The marshes, and the grasses of little value, form the third class, equally proportioned in value to the pasturage they yield.

Neat produce of grasses.

Comprising the impost and the revenue of the Proprietors.

First calculation by degradation.

Classes.	I. Valuation.	Acres.
1. at £. 8	15 ———	40,000
2. ———	5 11 3 ———	40,000
3. ———	4 7 6 ———	40,000
4. ———	3 10 0 ———	40,000
5. ———	3 1 3 ———	40,000
	<u>26 5 0</u>	

The mean price £ 5 : 5 s. of 200,000 acres, ——— £ 1,050,000

II. Valuation.

6. at £ 2	12 6 ———	300,000
7. ———	2 8 1 ———	300,000
8. ———	2 3 9 ———	300,000
9. ———	1 19 4 ———	300,000
10. ———	1 15 0 ———	300,000

11. —	1	10	7	—	300,000
12. —	1	6	3	—	300,000
13. —	1	1	10	—	300,000
14. —	0	17	6	—	300,000
15. —	0	10	6	—	300,000
<hr/>					
	16	5	4		

The mean price £ 1 : 12 : 4. of } 4,882,500
3,000,000.

III. Valuation.

16. —	0	7	0	—	560,000
17. —	0	5	3	—	560,000
18. —	0	2	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	560,000
19. —	0	1	9	—	560,000
20. —	0	0	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	560,000
<hr/>					
	0	17	6		

The mean price 3s. 6d. of 2,800,000— 490,000

General price £. 1 : 1 : 0. of 6,000,000—6,422,500

From this we must deduct the consumption of hay by ploughing oxen. We reckon very near a million of ploughs employed in the small culture, and four oxen (strong and weak) to each, which, at forty quintals of hay per ox, makes 160,000,000 of quintals yearly; which at fifteen sous the quintal, makes

5,250,000

Remains for neat produce

£ 1,172,500

WOODS.

W O O D S.

We reckon about 30,000,000 of acres of woods and thickets. These 30,000,000 being divided in cuttings of 20 years, the annual cutting becomes 1,500,000 acres. In dividing which by degradation of price, from £. 17 : 10 : 0 to £. 1 : 15 : 0. per acre, subdivided into thirty classes of 50,000 acres each, they will present the neat produce the nation draws from woods.

I.

	Acres.	£.
The two classes of the first order, calculated at	- 2,000,000	
from £. 17 : 10. to £. 15 : 6 : 3.		
gives £. 16 : 8 : 1. mean price, which upon 100,000 acres, or the twentieth part cut each year, is	-	1,640,625

II.

The three classes of the second order, are estimated at

- 3,000,000

of which the cutting of 150,000 acres by degradation, from £. 13 : 2 : 6 to

£. 9 : 16 : 10, gives

£. 11 : 9 : 3 mean price,

which is

1,722,655

III.

The four classes of the

third order, are calculated at 4,000,000

and

	Acres.	£.
and valued by degradation from £. 8 : 15 : 0, to £. 5 : 9 : 4, gives £. 7 : 1 : 9 mean price, and on the cutting 200,000 acres, yields		1,421,875

IV.

The six classes of the 4th order, are supposed	6,000,000	
and calculated by degradation from £. 4 : 7 : 6 to £. 2 : 3 : 9, the mean price, being £. 3 : 5 : 7, and on the cutting of 300,000 acres	-	984,375

V.

The six classes of this order	6,000,000	
degradation from £. 1 : 19 : 4 to 17 s. 6 d.; the mean price £. 1 : 8 : 0, the cutting 300,000	-	426,562

VI.

The nine classes of this order	9,000,000	
degradation from 15 s. 9 d. to 1 s. 9 d. mean price 8 s. 9 d. for the cutting of 450,000 acres	-	196,875

Total.	-	£. 6,392,967
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Deduct for the wood used by the farmers of the small culture, in

hedging

hedging their fields——their use,

£c. - - - - - 267,967
Remains neat * - - - - - £. 6,125,000

V I N E S.

We reckon in the kingdom about 1,600,000 acres of vines, of which the neat produce per acre, varies from £. 13 : 2 : 6, to £. 0 : 2 : 7½. We cannot give the neat produce, however, without deductions, because when it makes good only the expences, it nevertheless pays and maintains the Vigneron.

For discovering nearly the product, we shall divide the whole by degradation into 32 classes of 50,000 acres each.

I.

	Acres.	£.
The four classes of the first order, contain	-	200,000
Calculated by degradation from £. 13 : 2 : 6 † to £. 5 : 18 : 1, the mean price	-	-
£. 10 : 3 : 10.	-	2,045,312

II.

The five classes of this order	-	250,000
--------------------------------	---	---------

* I have inserted these calculations, rather as matters of information, in *some* particulars, than as authority in *all*. There are many circumstances in them which are not clear, for instance, the deduction above.

† It appears from hence, that the produce of the best acres of wine in France, is less than one would imagine: But no exact comparisons can be made of wine and corn, because the expences are not sufficiently stated.

From £. 3 : 14 : 4 to	Acres.	£.
£. 2 : 5 : 6, mean price	-	-
£. 3 : 0 : 4.	-	754,687

III.

The five classes of the third order	-	250,000
Calculated from £. 2 : 3 : 9 to £. 1 : 17 : 7, mean price	-	-
£. 2 : 0 : 3.	-	503,125

IV.

The four classes of this order	-	200,000
Calculated from £. 1 : 16 : 9 to £. 1 : 3 : 7, mean price	-	-
£. 1 : 11 : 6.	-	315,000

V.

The five classes of the fifth order,	-	250,000
Valued from £. 1 : 2 : 9, to £. 0 : 17 : 6, mean price	-	-
£. 0 : 19 : 6.	-	247,187

VI.

The nine classes of this order,	-	450,000
	-	<u>1,600,000</u>

Valued from £. 0 : 16 : 7 $\frac{1}{2}$, to £. 0 : 2 : 7 $\frac{1}{2}$, mean price	-	-
£. 0 : 9 : 0*.	-	<u>207,269</u>

* The lowness of this value, per acre, of so considerable a quantity of the French vineyards, is incredible; and stands in need of more explanation than the author gives: but it is observable, that he seems every where to sink the revenue lower than the truth.

The

The neat produce of the vines, comprising the revenue of the proprietors, the tenth, and the imposts paid in tailles, and in taxes, upon the sale in the first hand, amounts therefore to

£.

4,072,580

ARABLE LANDS.

GRAND CULTURE.

The annual crop of the grand culture is six millions of acres, whereof two millions remain yearly fallow; the produce as follows:

		£.	£.
For the Pro-	Corn—	918,750	1,378,125
prietors. }	Oats—	459,375	
For the	Corn—	306,250	459,375
Taille. }	Oats—	153,125	
Capita-	Upon corn and		160,414
	other impositions		
tion.	when annexed, are		
	the 3d. of the taille, 102,082		
	Upon oats the same, 58,332		
Tenth. }	Corn	458,888	546,873
	Oats	87,985	

Total revenue of the grand culture, not comprising the expences - 2,544,787

The farmers } Corn— 5,556,250. } 6,212,500
expences. } Oats— 656,250. }

Total revenue of the grand culture £. 8,757,287

SMALL CULTURE.

The land of this culture is reckoned at thirty millions of acres, whereof fifteen millions are fallow : the produce is

	£.	£.
For the proprietors -	1,968,750	
For the taille -	656,250	
For the capitation -	218,750	
For the tenth -	1,064,583	
	<hr/>	3,908,333
Expences -		13,125,000
		<hr/>
Total -		17,033,333
		<hr/>

RECAPITULATION.

	£.	£.
For the proprietors of the grand culture -	1,378,125	
Do. the small -	1,968,750	
Taille of the grand culture -	459,375	
Do. the small -	656,250	
Capitation of the grand culture -	160,414	
Do. the small -	218,750	
Tenth of the grand culture -	546,873	
Do. the small -	1,064,583	
	<hr/>	6,453,120
Expences of the grand culture -	6,212,500	
Do. the small -	13,125,000	
	<hr/>	19,337,500
		<hr/>
		25,790,620
		<hr/>

We see by the above, that the revenues of the culture of the nation, not including the expences, amount to

6,453,120

And

And for shewing by some example the proportion of the impost on the land, with the revenue of the proprietors, we shall insert two extracts from the treatise of M. Duprè de saint Maur, edition of 1746, entituled, *Essai des Monnoies*, p. 26, where he says. "In Sologne, the occupier of a little farm, let for £. 20 : 11 : 3. pays £. 9 : 10 : 9. taille, besides £. 2 : 4 : 7. capitation."

"In another farm let for £. 11 : 7 : 6. the farmer pays £. 5 : 5. taille, besides £. 1 : 12 : 6. capitation *."

We see, says the author, that the taille often exceeds a third of the produce of the lands; and that the capitation amounts nearly to a third of the taille.

GENERAL RECAPITULATION.

FIRST CALCULATION.

	£.
Graffes, consumption deducted,	1,172,500
Woods, ponds, fisheries, and other seignories, wood for farmers use de- ducted, - - -	6,125,000
Vines, - - -	4,072,580

* These are remarkable facts, and display very strongly the prodigious burthens husbandry lies under in France: It is a clear point, however, that the landlord must pay this by letting his farms proportionably: The farmer must live, and that is all they will suffer him to do, while they are necessitated to let their lands so low: But the grievous thing is, this tax rises with his crops and cattle, which is the mischievous burthen, and more pernicious than any other circumstance: For who will encrease his live stock, and cultivate his land vigorously (even if he was able) when the tax encreases with the earth's production, and the additions to his live stock. If tythes were always gathered in kind, the same consequences would appear in England.

Arable lands, comprising the tenth, and the impost,	-	-	6,453,120
			<hr/>
			£. 17,823,200
			<hr/>

SECOND CALCULATION.

By the Impost.

			£.
Tailles	-	-	1,888,169
Winter quarters	-	-	397,008
Particular imposition	-	-	137,195
Capitation on the Pais d'Election	-	-	1,102,150
Gratuitous gift	-	-	551,419
Capitation on the Pais d'Etat.	-	-	434,308
			<hr/>
		+	4,510,249
			<hr/>

But as that sum is levied, not only upon the lands, but also upon the houses, upon the men, upon industry and commerce, and upon cattle, we must deduct a fourth, which is -

1,127,562

There is a remark to be made upon the smallness of this deduction, for in the table above, the two capitations amount to above £. 1,500,000. But it is to be observed that the capitation on the farms and farmers, is imposed

+ It is observable that these sums are much under what I inserted in my fourth letter; but then it should be remembered, that the annexed and conquered countries are here omitted, which form a fifth, when the tenth penny is raised. Nor should we ever forget that the manifest intention of M. de Mirabeau, is to sink the income of France. I repeat again, that I do not insert this as absolute authority, but as a piece containing some curious particulars.

in

in addition to the tailles, and consequently directly concern the lands.

The only means therefore, by which we can make a just deduction of those taxes, not included in the land ones, is to suppose it a fourth of the whole.

The three remaining parts which form the portion, born by the four capital products, amounts to

£.
3,382,687

But as this land tax is, at least, raised on the footing of a third of the neat produce *, we must, to find the general mass of the nation's revenues, treble the last sum, which raises the contributing products to

10,148,061

£.

2dly, The amount of the woods was shewed above, to be £. 6,392,967. and the deductions for the farmers uses, £. 267,967. remained

6,125,000

3dly, The privileged domains—those managed by the nobility, and by the privileged proprietors, on account of their offices, may be valued at about

612,500

* I do not apprehend that these suppositions are well founded enough to invalidate the calculation of the rental of France, in my letter of comparison; for there is no reason to suppose, that the inhabitants could be supported by such a produce as this, especially as the French are known to eat so much bread.

	£.	£.
4 ^{thly} , The impropriations, and the tenths of the clergy, which the — keep, may produce curates and pro- prietors, a revenue of about	743,750	
5 ^{thly} , The ecclesiastical lands, which the higher and lower clergy keep	437,500	
	<hr/>	7,918,750

Total of the nation's revenue, according to this valuation	-	18,066,811
		<hr/>

THIRD CALCULATION.

By the twentieth penny.

The twentieth penny produces about
£. 875,000, and consequently indi-
cates a revenue of

17,500,000

But as the twentieth penny is le-
vied upon houses, industry, and com-
merce, we must deduct a fourth upon
that account

4,375,000

Remains - - - 13,125,000

We must remark that the twen-
tieth penny, being levied arbitrarily
upon the small culture which is not
farmed, includes the double and treble
employs, as has been showed in the
memoirs of different provinces.

This abuse may make an excess of
about a fourth in the £. 13,125,000;
which fourth we shall deduct

3,281,250

Remains - - - 9,843,750

To

To which we must add, first, the £.
 woods, not comprised in the twentieth 6,125,000
 2dly, The ecclesiastical and privi-
 leged lands, as before excepted - 1,793,750

Total, according to this calculation, 17,762,500

The three calculations are,

1st, By the detail of the neat pro-
 duce of the nation - - 17,823,200
 2d, By land taxes - - 18,066,811
 3d, By the twentieth penny - 17,762,500

The medium therefore is - 17,884,170

From which sum we must deduct,

1st, The exemptions on account
 of the nobility—privileges—offices,
 and which is cultivated by proprie-
 tors, the revenue of which is 612,500

2d, The impropriations,
 and tenths of the clergy,
 which the curates and pro-
 prietors keep in their hands 743,750

3d, The woods and the
 ecclesiastical lands, which the
 higher and lower clergy
 keep in their hands - 6,562,000

7,918,250

Remains for the income of the con-
 tributing lands - - -

9,965,920

It appears from these totals, that the imposts
 should amount only to about £. 3,300,000, the
 surplus of which, therefore, falls to the burthen of
 the productions, upon all kinds of undertakings,
 whether of cultivation, commerce, or industry, and
 upon workmen of all kinds, who all contribute to
 the annual reproduction of the states revenues.

There is here an important remark to be made.

One

One cannot help being astonished to perceive, in these different calculations, that the revenues of exempted lands, are so very considerable, in comparison with those that contribute. The result of this reflection must be, that whilst we appear to contribute to the exchequer a third of the revenues of the nation, we grant with difficulty a fifth. This point is naturally explained by a remark on the nature of these estates. Those which are exempted, are not in reality a sixth of the whole; it is not so much the proportion between the revenues of them, and the taxed lands, as the destruction of the culture of these last; a destruction caused by the same errors as the administration which destroys the culture. Most part of the exempted estates consists of woods, which are not expensive in the culture; a reason why their revenue has not suffered so great a diminution as that of other lands. Grasses, and woods, are the last resources of a ruined territory: but at last, that resource will become extinct with population, and leave nothing but deserts.

TABLE of the territorial revenues of France, in a state of prosperity, procured by a rich culture, by the suppression of all vexations of the culture. Corvees*, militia, arbitrary impositions: By an immunity to all kinds of improvements in culture, and industry; also by a liberty absolute and entire of all commerce, interior and exterior †.

ARABLE LANDS.

The territory of the kingdom, is about 130,000,000 of acres ‡, whereof the half is woods,

* Work done by vassals for their lord.

† Theorie de l'impôt, p. 142.

‡ M. de Boulainvilliers even says, 150 million. Good authorities lower it to 80,000,000, but, I apprehend, I was nearest the mark, in adopting the sentiment of those who calculate it at something under 100,000,000.

grasses,

grasses, vines, ponds, rivers, roads, habitations and sterile lands: the other half we reduce to 60,000,000, cultivable for grains; of these 60,000,000 of acres, there are not more than 40 that are cultivated, and of these 40, we reckon that six are under the grand culture; the rest are under the small culture, which is estimated to produce, good and bad, four times the seed.

For discovering what would be the products of these 60,000,000 of acres, if they were richly cultivated, we shall divide them into 30 classes.

Those of the first order comprehends the best lands; those which are planted with fruit trees; those which are proper for the culture of particular productions of high value, such as tobacco, flax, hemp, &c. This order being divided into eight classes of 2,000,000 of acres each, valued by degradation, from £. 1: 6: 3, to £. 0: 14: 0: The mean price £. 0: 18: 4. total -

£.

14,612,500

The classes of the second order, comprise the good lands, which may produce rich crops of corn. This order comprehends fourteen classes, 2,000,000 of acres each, value from £. 0: 13: 1. to £. 0: 5: 3. mean price £. 0: 7: 10. amount -

11,987,500

The third order, comprehends the lands of moderate value, which only produce rye, and buck-wheat. It contains eight classes of 2,000,000 of acres each, value from £. 0: 4: 4, to £. 0: 0: 10½: The mean price £. 0: 2: 8, - -

2,231,250

Total, 60,000,000 acres, =

28,831,250

We

£.

We comprise in this total of neat produce, the profit which the rich farmers may draw from cattle, in a kingdom in which the maintenance of the property would be a vast consumption.

We must add to the above total, the imposts (as above*) - 14,415,625
And the tenth - 7,207,812

21,623,437

Total, of arable lands, - £. 50,454,687

G R A S S E S.

In the present state of husbandry, almost the whole revenues of the grasses are consumed by the oxen employed in the small culture of lands: We know how nearly all the territory of the kingdom is reduced to this small culture. The burthens upon the corn trade †, and the arbitrary tailles have reduced the farmers who were able to be at the expences of the great culture, and have forced proprietors to have none but poor occupiers, who can only cultivate the land with oxen; and nevertheless their landlords have been forced to supply them with seed, manures, and in general with every thing necessary for the improvement of an estate. Without this miserable and last resource, the lands would have remained entirely uncultivated, even with great quantities of fodder, of no value: But the grasses are susceptible of a very

* It should be remembered, this is levied on houses, &c.— and this calculation supposes no exemptions.

† This was wrote in 1761, before the new system was adopted in France: The case is different now.

considerable improvement, in augmenting their products in an opulent state, where rural commerce is extended by the multiplication of ploughs which necessarily augments the demand for fodder, and gives us reason to value the grasses * at
 £. 10,937,500.

WOODS.

When the arable lands become, by a good cultivation, of an high value to landlords, they will be very attentive to draw likewise a great produce from the lands employed in other plantations, that their riches may place them in a state of bearing the expences necessary for all improvements.

In this kingdom, wherein the produce of the lands is so small, the woods follow the same proportion of decadence, and especially in the provinces at a distance from great cities. We know how much they are neglected. Most of them are given up as pastures for cattle, and especially ploughing oxen, in the countries where the small culture is pursued: for, although they do not pasture them until the coppice is seven years old, yet the cattle eat the young shoots which ought to repeople the woods: there is a necessity of preventing this, by enclosing them with ditches, but the expence would be too heavy to proprietors so little favoured. If this case was totally altered by a suppression of all the burthensome imposts, which lessen the consumption, and the improvements took place, in consequence the revenue of woods would amount to
 £. 12,775,000.

* M. de Mirabeau reckons the increase to depend greatly on using horses instead of oxen; but then he seems to forget the disadvantages of the former in the consumption of oats, which is prodigious.

VINES.

If the commodity and commerce of wine were eased of the aids, duties on carriage, entries and exportation, &c. which raises above £. 3,500,000, and which does not yield to the treasury, a sixth part of that ruinous imposition, this branch of cultivation would become one of the greatest sources of the riches of the kingdom, and produce a revenue of — — — £. 10,631,250

The four products would in a prosperous time, form a revenue as follows.

	£.
Arable lands - - - -	50,454,687
Grasses - - - -	10,937,500
Woods - - - -	12,775,000
Vines - - - -	10,631,250
<hr/>	
Total. - - - -	£. 84,798,437

M A R I N E.

The following sketch relative to the renovation of the French navy, from the Count de la Bouslainvilliers, will, I apprehend, be thought to favour strongly the opinion I professed in my fifth letter, that France might easily dispute the empire of the sea.

1. Is the position of France favourable enough for forming a marine equal to that of the maritime powers?

2. Is the general commerce of France sufficient to furnish the means of disputing with those states, the empire of the sea?

3. Can the commodities of its growth employ as many ships in transporting them, as those of England and Holland united?

4. Are the means of raising a great marine such, as might exist independently of those of all other states, who might endeavour to prevent it?

5. Is the population of France great enough to furnish a sufficient number of mariners?

Let us examine these questions separately.

1. Is the position of France advantageous enough to form a great army?

It is a fact, that our proximity with the states which are the granaries of the nations who want subsistence, particularly Spain and Portugal, gives us a great advantage over the maritime powers.

Our ports in the Mediterranean are contiguous to those of Italy. We are much nearer to Sicily and Barbary, than the English or Dutch, who at present take this navigation upon themselves: An advantage which might alone decide our superiority over all other maritime states.

No people could navigate more for others than ourselves. We are in the center of the navigation of Europe. There is no government in the political world, with so great a facility of rendering itself the master of the two seas. We have a prodigious quantity of ports in each.

The Dutch have not one in the Mediterranean: The English have none * considerable.

Our position gives us the maritime empire. We have greater advantages upon the ocean than upon the Mediterranean: But these seas equally wash the kingdom.

We might divide our navy into two branches, whereof the interests and the views might be separate, and have different objects.

The English, Dutch, and all the northern people in general, who have a trade on both the seas, are indispensably obliged to pass the Straights of Gibraltar.

But for us, our commodities may be transported from one sea to the other, by the canal of Languedoc, without passing that streight; which, in

case of wars, especially with the Barbarians, is to us a considerable advantage.

In another respect, our climate is one of the most favourable of Europe for navigation.

In Holland and many states of the North, the sea is not navigable in all seasons; the frosts prevent their ships from entering their ports during many months of the year. England has not so great inconveniences, but she is not without them.

We know nothing of this in France. Our climate soft and temperate, permits our ships to go in and out of our havens freely, in all seasons of the year.

The English and the Dutch are obliged to be longer at sea than we are. In a word, whatever may be the cause, it is certain, that every thing equal of time, place and distance, our ships in general, make five voyages to four, of the maritime nations: This, upon the total of navigation, gives us a very considerable advantage.

2. Is our general commerce sufficient to furnish the means of disputing the empire of the sea with the English and Dutch?

It is certain that our Colonies offer us the greatest maritime resources, such as those of other states cannot yield them.

Of all the people who have divided among them, the rich treasures of America, our lot is found to be the best. Our sugar islands are, by far, beyond those of England or Holland: The soil is more fruitful, and the commodities better and more abundant.

From the state of the improvement of the lands of our Colonies, it is easy to prove, that we might employ a greater number of ships of transport, than the other maritime governments.

It will be asked without doubt, what use France can have for the commodities of America, all maritime nations having, as well as we, a share of land in the new world? I answer, that the foreign consumption would be always certain, in spite of all prohibitions; their low price in the isles of St. Domingo and Martinico, will ensure to us, the preference to other people.

General rule. The nation that is in a state of affording its commodities at the lowest price, will always sell the most.

The English and Dutch, in spite of the prohibition which they have laid on the products of our Colonies, are always the first that would profit by their low price.

Besides, there are many nations in Europe, who possess nothing in America, and whose wants multiply, in proportion to the augmentation of our commodities.

The other branches of our commerce, might equally furnish us with great means of augmenting the number of our ships, and in particular, those of the North.

No body will dispute with the French, the quality of being very industrious; this advantage is considerable, in enabling them to work up the materials for constructing of navies.

The industry of the people of the North, in comparison with ours, is but a meer beginning. Nevertheless, those people have great wants.

The exchange of the produce of our manufactures for their masts, planks, pitch and tar is greatly advantageous to us, as these commodities are bulky in their transport, and lay the foundation of a powerful marine.

The Turk begins to make a figure in Europe. They have wants at present which they had not heretofore. Their luxury increases in proportion with that of the christian states.

They consume much already, and the exchange of commerce with us, is founded upon matters of bulk, rice, corn, and raw silk.

Our commerce with Constantinople, Smyrna, Grand Cairo, Aleppo, Cyprus, Salonica, &c. might contribute to form different branches of the marine, and all considerable.

The commerce of the isles of the Archipelago, might become equally proper for employing a great number of our ships; nor could any thing prevent our securing the commerce of the black sea, till lately unknown to all the christian nations. The Grand Seignor would consent to it most willingly, as it might prove the only means left to the Porte, of holding a check on the power of the house of Austria.

The vast resources which the corn trade might furnish us with, would considerably augment the number of our ships.

Most of the states of Europe, are ignorant of their true œconomical interests. With the best laws in the world, many nations want bread.

None can be in a more advantageous state than ourselves, of profiting by this political defect.

Another advantage is that of our ships.

In general they are better sailors, than those of other nations; the goodness of our ports, gives us powers in the constructing of our ships, which other maritime powers have not: Few of their havens are so deep as ours; a circumstance which in their ship building, greatly retards their navigations. On the contrary, our ports are the deepest in Europe, which alone gives us an immense advantage over the nations who are our rivals in navigation.

3. Will the commodities of its produce, employ as many ships as those of other countries?

France

France contains 150,000,000 acres of land. This vast tract, cultivated for grains, after providing the nation with subsistence, might, in furnishing that commodity to people who want it, employ at least 6000 ships, the maintainance of which, would be no charge to the state. We see from hence, that there is no republick or monarchy in Europe of such extent, for producing matters of the first necessity,—or relatively so great. We find states more immense than France, but not greater in respect of productions.

If we except some of our northern provinces, all the others furnish in general, every thing necessary to human life: an advantage in which this monarchy is distinct from all others in the universe. Our wines and our aqua-vitæ might equally employ a prodigious number of ships.

Such is their quality, that foreigners cannot absolutely do without them.

Our wines are become the natural draught of all the people of Europe.

There is something prodigious in the efforts which the English have made, for favouring the entry of the wines of all other nations, in prejudice to ours.

As they easily foresee every consequence relative to our marine, there are no means which they have not attempted for stopping its progress.

In England they have laid duties on our wines, &c. of four times the value; and entirely prohibited our aqua-vitæ. But all these laws are useless, our wines find the way thither every day.

England and Holland are full of them, and will always be so.

The preference is physically given to these commodities of France, in every nation.

The wines of the other climates of Europe, are too full of aqua-vitæ: They are dangerous in their

nature: Foreigners use them only for their quality and never for their quantity.

Our fruits might form a second branch of marine of the utmost importance.

All our middle provinces abound with such as the northern nations want most: They are so good, that many people give them the preference to their own.

Our plumbs, almonds, olives, figs, chesnuts, and dried raisins, which foreigners draw from us, might employ, every year, a thousand sail of ships.

But our salt alone, might raise on the ocean a formidable French marine: All nations agree, that it is superior in quality, to that of any other country in Europe.

We know there is no doing without this commodity. It is become an absolute necessity. It enters, at present, into all kinds of nourishment and victuals. Most nations have it from us.

More than a thousand of our own ships might, if we pleased, be employed in the transporting it.

A multitude of other commodities of the first necessity, as hemp and flax, are ready among us to put in motion a vast number of our ships.

But our manufactures without contradiction, give us the means of becoming the first maritime power of Europe.

All the world knows, that our *arts* are adopted by all the nations of the world. Each people is attacked with the malady of bedecking themselves with our cloths.

For, having the superiority in this branch of administration, there is no want to France, of a political system, it is enough to profit by the general rage for our manufactures.

If ever we were to direct the structure of our marine perfectly, every nation of Europe would, to express myself so, become petrified.

England, in spite of that multitude of means which she continually uses to annihilate it, always becomes, without perceiving it, the first who contributes to form it. It is a remark which I made in the house of Lords at London, that those who proposed the wisest laws for preventing the entry of French cloths into the kingdom, were the first to cloath themselves with them.

Laws never have force enough to stop the phantastic caprice of a people: The extravagance of taste will always triumph over rules.

Considering the universal genius which is at present expanded over Europe, our manufactures might employ two or three thousand sail of our ships.

Our fashions become another support of our marine. Their variety, upon which is founded, without doubt, that eagerness with which foreigners adopt them, makes a continual share of our political power. Our ships might always be in motion, because that which foment's luxury is in a continual agitation.

I speak not of other commodities of our growth, which other states possess not, nor of a multitude of local resources, which, in employing a greater number of ships than other nations, might give us the empire of the sea.

Holland produces nothing but milk.

England, if we except corn, yields nothing but tin and allum, commodities which, reduced to their real bulk, would employ but few ships: These two nations, to support their marine, are obliged to navigate for others.

I have calculated the products of the first necessity, by their natures and the extent of their soils;

and find that after their own consumption is provided for, there does not remain more than would employ two hundred sail *.

4. Are the means of raising a great marine for France, such as may exist independent of the efforts which other states may make to prevent it?

France, drawing few commodities from foreigners, and furnishing them with many of her own produce, possesses within herself the sources of a formidable navy. In this part of administration she is entirely independent of all other states; of those who might make the greatest efforts for becoming powerful on the ocean; nor could they prevent France from becoming more so, since, for that end, the materials of grandeur are hers.

That which retards and often prevents the prosperity of most governments, is the reciprocal dependence which they are under one upon another. It is a chain of causes which connects them together, and keeps them in inaction. This is the reason why we see vast empires, with immense forces and power, remain, as it were, immovable, and even retrograde, instead of attaining that period of grandeur which they ought naturally to inherit.

The French navy lies not under this inconvenience. Its interests are absolutely distinct from those of all the other powers of Europe.

For those things which are necessary to its elevation, she has no recompence to make to any government.

All the foundations of the French marine exist in the state, in the great number of commodities which belongs to her, and which might employ

* Several points in this piece, are to be read with great allowances,

a much greater number of ships than any other maritime people can.

5. Is her population sufficient to form a great marine?

When we speak of a great French marine, it ought always to be relatively to that of England; for we have no other measure of maritime power.

When the population of France suffices for forming a body of sea-men, capable of looking that power in the face; the calculation is made.

England has only 8,000,000 of inhabitants; She is able (at least many politicians think so) to have 100,000 mariners.

France has from 17, to 18,000,000, therefore in proportion, she might have 220,000 seamen. I know there are some things to be said to this calculation, in respect to the numbers of our clergy, which are much more numerous than in England, but the disproportion is not so great, as to prevent there being a great difference between the body of our mariners, compared with those of that monarchy.

I know likewise, that the more inhabitants a country has, the more numerous will be the other professions which serve to maintain society; they must have more husbandmen, more labourers, more proprietors of the soil, more merchants, shopkeepers, workmen, and artizans.

But after all these calculations are made, we must yet have recourse to a first principle, to wit—that in a great state as well as a small one, there is a proportion relative to each class, and a balance of men in every profession.

There is in France about 140,000 parishes; if every one was obliged to furnish a sailor to the state, France would immediately possess a number greater than that of England.

QUESTIONS.

Can France change 50,000 soldiers into as many sea-men, without endangering her power?

To judge if France can at present, in total security, make this reform, we must recur to the causes of that monarchy's establishing such numerous land armies.

Without looking further, we may perhaps find it in the ambition of our Kings, for becoming the most powerful upon land.

However, without attributing it to this cause, it is certain that the monarchy then had need of a greater number of land-men than at present.

Under Lewis XIII. and at the commencement of the reign of Lewis XIV. the throne of Spain was filled by a prince of the house of Austria. That power which, from its prodigious fortune, had a considerable influence upon the affairs of Europe, obliged France to keep on foot great armies.

Besides, the conquests which France came to make herself, in exciting the jealousy of almost every nation, raised a kind of general fermentation, which occasioned the sword to be constantly in hand. Vast bodies of land-forces were, with difficulty kept. With a prodigious number of soldiers, the French nation were often on the point of being conquered.

There has happened since that time, a considerable revolution in our political world. The succession of Spain has passed to a prince of the house of Bourbon, and changed every system.

From thence, the French monarchy had less to fear from her neighbour's power.

This event dissolved, as it were, all the powerful politics of Europe, each state finding itself then

then distinct, its views were reduced to itself; this rendered the power of the French monarchy permanent;—at least, she feared less, and at present, less still, the combined armies of her enemies.

France may therefore reform 50,000 of her land-forces, without hazarding her power. Before this change, all combinations of force were by land; but now they are on the sea.

Within these sixty years, most of the princes of Europe, have changed their political system: It is we only who have not changed ours.

We continue always to keep the same number of troops, although they are now become useless.

Holland and England, since these events, having no hope of aggrandizing themselves, but by the means of a powerful marine, have turned all their care to that side.

We might augment the number of our ships, and that of our seamen, without following their example.

For what purpose do we maintain, at such a great expence, such prodigious land-armies?

They only serve to ruin our finances, and prevent the state from forming a marine.

Our regular troops bear no proportion, in number, with those of any other power in Europe. There is in this branch of our administration, a superfluity, ruinous to the state.

The combined armies of England and Holland, do not exceed 40,000 men. We, in maintaining, even in time of peace, 150,000, keep 110,000 men more than these two powers.

It is in the combination, well or ill understood, of the number of military forces, on which depends the strength or weakness of a state.

It is always ruinous for a government to have 200,000 men on foot, when a less number would suffice for maintaining its power.

It is going to annihilation, by the road to grandeur, and overturning the monarchy, by the means which ought to elevate it.

It is because England keeps only a small land army, that she is powerful at sea; and it is because she has so formidable a navy, that she can at present, measure her power with ours.

There is no medium: We must render ourselves small on one element, if we would become great on another.

The maintaining of 300,000 soldiers, and 100,000 sea-men, is an impracticable project.

The confusion of our finances, by that multitude of expences with which the treasury is burthened, will never suffer the government to put in motion such great resources.

List of the FRENCH NAVY, as it was in the years 1755, and 1763.

Nº.	Ships Names.	Guns.	Men.	Where built.	Age.	Losses.
1.	Royal Louis.	120	1200	Rochfort.	1751	
	Ocean.	84	1200		1756	Burnt.
	D. de Bourgogne	80	1000	Brest.	1751	
	Formidable.	80	1000		1750	Taken.
5.	Foudroyant.	80	1000	Toulon.		
	Soleil Royale.	80	1000	Brest.	1749	Burnt.
	Tonant.	80	1000	Toulon.	1743	
	Orient.	80	1000			
	Algonquin.	74	815	Canada.	1753	
10.	Bien Aimé	74	815			
	Centaur.	74	815	Toulon.	1756	Taken.
	Conquerant.	74	815	Toulon.	1746	
	Courageux.	74	815	Brest.	1743	Taken.
	Courone.	74	815	Rochfort.	1749	
15.	Defenseur.	74	815	Brest.	1754	
	Diademe.	74	815	Toulon.	1756	
	Entreprenant.	74	815	Brest.	1754	Burnt.
	Experience.	74	815			Taken.
	Florissant.	74	815	Sweden,	1752	
20.	Glorieux.	74	815			
	Guerriere.	74	815	Toulon.	1750	
	Hector.	74	815	Rochfort.	1750	
	Heros.	74	815	Brest.	1752	Burnt.
	Intrepide.	74	815	Toulon.	1747	
25.	Magnifique.	74	815	Brest.	1749	
	Minotaur.	74	815			
	Palmier.	74	815	Brest.	1752	
	Protecteur.	74	815			
	Prudent.	74	815	Rochfort.	1754	Burnt.
30.	Redoubtable.	74	815	Toulon.	1750	Burnt.
	Robuste.	74	815			Taken.
	Sceptre.	74	815	Brest.	1747	
	Souveraine.	74	815	Toulon.	1756	
	Superbe.	74	815	Brest.		Sunk.
						35. Te-

No.	Ships Names.	Guns.	Men.	Where built.	Age.	Losses.
35.	Temeraire.	74	815	Toulon.	1759	Taken.
	Thesée.	74	815	Brest.		Sunk.
	Zodiaque.	74	815			
	Dauphine Royale.	70	800	Brest.	1735	
	Ferme.	70	800	Toulon.	1722	Taken.
40.	Juste.	70	800	Rochfort.	1724	
	Achilles.	64	750	Toulon.	1747	Taken.
	Active.	64	750	Brest.		Taken.
	Alcide.	64	750			
	Altia.	64	750	Toulon.		
45.	St. Anne.	64	750	Genoa.		Taken.
	C. de Provence.	64	750			
	Belliqueux.	64	750	Toulon.		Taken.
	Bienfaisant.	64	750	Brest.	1752	Taken.
	Bertine.	64	750	Sweden.	1760	
50.	Bizarre.	64	750		1751	
	Brilliant.	64	750			
	Capricieux.	64	750	Rochfort.	1753	Sunk.
	Celebre.	64	750	Toulon.		Sunk.
	Content.	64	750	Toulon.	1747	
55.	Dragon.	64	750	Brest.		
	L'Harlaem.	64	750			
	Eveille.	64	750	Rochfort.	1752	
	La Fortune.	64	750			
	Fontasque.	64	750	Toulon.	1756	
60.	Hardi.	64	750	Toulon.		
	Hercules.	64	750	Brest.	1748	
	Illustre.	64	750	Brest.	1750	
	Inflexible.	64	750	Rochfort.		
	Lion.	64	750	Toulon.	1751	
65.	Lys.	64	750	Brest.	1746	Taken.
	Modeste.	64	750	Toulon.	1751	Taken.
	Northumberland.	64	750	England.	1744	
	St. Louis.	64	750			
	Opiniatre.	64	750	Brest.	1750	
70.	Orphée.	64	750	Toulon.	1749	Taken.
	Prothée.	64	750	Brest.		
	Raisnable.	64	750	Brest.		Taken.
	Sage.	64	750	Toulon.	1751	
	Solide.	64	750	Toulon.		
75.	Solitaire.	64	750			
	Sphinx.	64	750			
	Triton.	64	750	Toulon.	1747	
	Valliant.	64	750	Toulon.		
	D. D'Orleans.	64	750			
80.	Vengeur.	64	750			
	La Vainqueur.	64	750			

N ^o .	Ships Names.	Guns.	Men.	Where built.	Age.	Losses.
	Verge du Eofair.	64	750	Genoa.		
	Verge du Sr.	64	750	Genoa.		
	Leopard.	64	750	Toulon.	1720	
85.	St. Michelle.	60	700	Brest.	1738	
	Warwick.	60	700	England.		Retaken.
	L'Agile.	54	600	Rochfort.	1750	
	Alcion.	54	600	Toulon.	1724	Taken.
	Amphion.	56	600	Rochfort.	1748	
90.	Arc-en-ciel.	54	600			Taken.
	Fier.	54	600	Toulon.		
	Himptain.	54	600	Toulon.	1749	
	Osiflamme.	54	600	Toulon.	1748	Taken.
	Greenwich.	50	600	England.		
95.	Sagitaire.	50	600			
	Aquilon.	46	550	Toulon.	1733	Taken.
	Juno.	46	550	H. de-Gr.	1748	
	Belleisle.	44	550	St. Mal.	1757	
	Abenakife.	40	450	Canada.		Taken.
100.	Danæ.	40	450			Taken.
	Hebé.	40	450			
	Outarde.	40	450			
	Saptier.	40	450			
	Aigrette.	36	400			
105.	Arethuse.	36	400			
	Begon.	36	400			
	Echo.	36	400			Taken.
	Favourite.	36	400	H. d-Gr.	1748	
	Felicité.	36	400			
110.	Harmonie.	36	400			
	Hermione.	36	400	Rochfort.	1749	Taken.
	Le Grand.	36	400			
	Malicieufe.	36	400			
	Baleine.	36	400			
115.	Atlante.	32	350	Toulon.	1741	
	Blonde.	32	350	H. de-Gr.		
	Bouffon.	32	350			Taken.
	Brune.	32	350	H. de-Gr.		Taken.
	Diane.	32	350	Toulon.	1742	Taken.
120.	Pr. Edward.	32	350			Burnt.
	Hyene.	32	350	Toulon.	1744	
	Ophale.	32	350			
	Vestale.	32	350			
	Zephire.	32	350	Toulon.	1728	
125.	Amethist.	32	350			
	Marechault.	30	300			
	Bellone.	30	300			Taken.
	Cornette.	30	300	Brest.	1752	Taken.
						Concord.

N ^o .	Ships Names.	Guns.	Men.	Where built.	Age.	Losses.
	Concord.	30	300			
130.	Fleur de Lys.	30	300	Brest.	1754	Burnt.
	Licorne.	30	300			
	Méfiance.	30	300			
	Pylade.	30	300	Toulon.	1749	
	Pomone.	30	300	Toulon.	1749	
135.	Rose.	30	300	Toulon.	1752	Burnt.
	Sauvage.	30	300	Brest.		
	Sérieux.	30	300	Brest.		
	Surprise.	30	300			
	Sylphide.	30	300			
140.	Syren.	30	300			Taken.
	Valeur.	30	300			Taken.
	Duc de Choiseul.	30	300			
	Chimere.	26	300			
	Diligente.	26	300			
145.	Flore.	26	300	Toulon.		
	Tripon.	26	300	Rochfort.		
	Mindrore.	26	300	Rochfort.		
	Oiseau.	26	300	Toulon.		
	Oiseau de Mer.	26	300	H. de-Gr.	1759	
150.	Atalife.	24	280			
	Avise.	24	280			
	Brissol Privateer.	24	280	Bristol.		
	Cornette.	24	280	Brest.	1751	
	Emeraude.	24	280	H. de-Gr.	1744	
155.	Fidelle.	24	280	Rochfort.	1747	Taken.
	Tierce.	24	280	H. de-Gr.	1744	
	Bien Aimé.	24	280			
	Galatea.	24	280	Brest.	1744	Taken.
	Gracieuse.	24	280	Toulon.	1749	
160.	Heroine.	24	280	Brest.	1744	
	Hirondelle.	24	280	Toulon.		
	Mutine.	24	280	Brest.	1744	
	Terpfichore.	24	280			
	Thetis.	24	280			Taken.
165.	Topaze.	24	280	Brest.	1750	
	Volage.	24	280	Toulon.		
	Eclair.	22	250			
	Girlande.	22	250			Taken.
	M. de Morlaix.	22	250			
170.	Maitre.	22	250	Canada.	1746	
	Nymphe.	22	250	Rochfort.	1750	Taken.
	Petit Cumberland.	20	240	Brest.		
	Messager.	20	240			
	Mignone.	20	240			Taken.
175.	Rhinocérat.	20	240			Burnt.
						Bellone

N ^o .	Ships Names.	Cann.	Men.	Where built.	Age.	Notes.
	Bellone.	20	240			
	Riche.	16	180			Taken.
	Calypso.	16	180			
	Bienfaïtant.	18	180			
180.	Renommé.	18	180			
	Chevere.	16	180			Taken.
	Escarboucle.	16	180			Taken.
	Oracle.	16	180			
	Stork.	16	180	England.		
185.	Turturrelle.	16	180			
	Epreuve.	14	160			Taken.
	D. d'Hanover.	14	160			Taken.
	Amaranthe.	14	160	Brest.	1747	
	Anemone.	12	140	Brest.		
190.	Arc-en-ciel.	12	140	Brest.		
	Gigine.	12	140			
	Courstoujours.	12	140			
	Ecureuil.	12	140			
	Hyacinth.	12	140			
195.	Legree.	12	140			
	Levrier.	12	140			
	Peramine.	12	140			
	Penelope.	12	140			
	Renoncle.	12	140			
200.	Sardoine.	12	140			Taken.
	Pie.	10	120			
	Mahone.	8	100			
	Agathe.	6	100			
	Badaire.	6	100			
205.	Colombe.	6	100			
	Roy de Prusse.	6	100			
	Monita.	4	850	Brest.		
	Postillion.	4	850			

Xebeques, or Store-ships.

	Indiscrete.	24	200	Toulon.	1751	
210.	Requin.	24	200	Toulon.	1750	
	Rufe.	18	200	Toulon.	1751	
	Chart. Royal.	60	500			
	Marie.	50	400			
	Loire.	40	400			Taken.
215.	Serenade.	40	400	Brest.		
	Profond.	30	250	Rochfort.		Themis.

N ^o .	Ship's Name.	Guns.	Men.	Where built.	Age.	Losses.
	Themis.	22	200			
	Nasaptime.	12	100			
	Charanthe.	10	80			
220.	Sarcelle.	6	70			
	Ballime.	6	70	Brest.		
	Chameau.	6	70			
	Elephant.	6	70			
	Hermione.	4	50			
225.	Penelope.	25	200			
	Repulse.	26	260			
	Le Gramont.	26	200			
	Hawke.	14	100	England.		Retaken.
	Virgin.	10	80	England.		
230.	Le Barclay.	20	200			
	Le Mercure.	10	80			
	Le Lutine.	36	300			
	Le Mutine.	24	200			
	Le Senectere.	24	200			
235.	Duc de Fronfac.	20	200			
	Le Soleil Royal.	24	200			
237.	Entreprenant.	26	220			Taken.

95 Line of battle. G. 9682 M. 110,755

242 Frigates.

The names of all the ships taken, &c. I have not been able to procure; but the following is a general list.

N ^o . of Ships.	Guns.	Men.	Total Guns.
1	84	1000	84
3	80	3000	240
14	74	11410	1036
19	64	14250	1216
1	56	600	56
3	54	1800	162
6	50	3600	300
4	44	2200	176
2	40	900	80
19	36	7600	684
			1

N ^o . of Ships.	Guns.	Men.	Total Guns.
1	34	350	34
13	32	4550	416
3	28	900	84
2	26	600	52
7	24	1960	168
3	22	750	66
7	20	1680	140
1	18	180	18
7	16	1260	112
4	14	640	56
2	12	280	24
1	10	120	10
8	8	800	64

Line 47	60,430	5278
Frig. 84		

I have given them their full complement of men, whereas many of them being taken at the latter end of the war, were not completely manned: Perhaps the number of men taken by the English, in part of these ships, did not exceed 40,000. some were burnt, &c.

The N ^o . of guns in 1755.	-	-	9682
Taken, &c. by the enemy.	-	-	5278

Remaining in 1763, of their old fleet, besides such new ones as were built during the war, and not taken.

-	-	-	-	4404
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Cost of the total fleet, at a thousand pounds a gun, ready for the sea.

-	-	-	-	£. 9,682,000
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Cost of those taken, &c. by the
enemy.

£. 5,278,000

The foregoing tables offer matter for reflection of the most curious and important kind. It is from thence very evident, that the French ministry have made most.

Our finances are confided to men that are ever animated by a vile interest.

Our super-intendants look more to their own fortunes, than those of the state.

Fouquet appropriated to his own profit, more than

£. 2,100,000

The disgrace of that minister followed by his chastisement.



F I N I S.

